

STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF HOMICIDE

By Sally Freeman¹

Abstract

The piece of work will be looking to address the gap in research around perceptions of homicide particularly with regards peoples' perception of the dynamics of homicide such as where it occurs and the circumstances around the offence. The research will also look at where people get their information on crime from and consider if this has an effect on a person's perception. Previous research suggests that peoples view of crime is not in line with official statistics and that people think crime is on the increase when official figure suggest that crime rates and in particular homicide rates are decreasing (Mattinson and Mirrlees-Black, 2000; McDonald, 1995; Mitchell and Roberts,2012). Research also suggests there is a difference between men and women's perceptions of crime (Pfeiffer et al, 2005), and this piece of research aims to try and replicate those findings in respect to perceptions of homicide.

The research will be conducted using a structured questionnaire and the sample is of 102 students of the University of Huddersfield, not including criminology students. As the sampling method is convenience sampling, the sample is made up of 26 males, 75 females and one response where the sex of the participant was missing. The data will be analysed using the PASW statistics computer programme where the finding will be analysed using the chi square test, as the data is nominal, the expected count is higher than five and because it is comparing two variables.

The findings show that students tended to underestimate the number of homicides per year, although they think that the number of homicides has actually risen from previous years. Students' perception of homicide dynamics are found to be relatively similar to official statistics apart from sex of the victim, where the majority of respondents and predominately female respondents, think that females are the most likely victims despite official figures suggesting that it is men who are the most likely victim of homicide. Similar to previous research, the results from this study show a difference between male and female responses, the finding is statistically significant for whether the rates of homicide had increased or decreased, with more men than women correctly saying that it had decreased. The response also differed when asked about the sex of the victim with men suggesting men and women suggesting women. Another interesting aspect of the research was around the source from which people got their information from, which shows that those who got their information from TV news were more likely to overestimate the number of homicides as well as suggesting that women were the most likely victims.

The finding from the study suggest that there is a difference between men and women's perceptions of homicide as well as a difference between where a person gets their information about crime from. It goes beyond the scope of this study, however, to explain why those differences occur, so further research is necessary to explore this and whether there is something that could be done to try and educate the public more about crime.

¹ University of Huddersfield, BSc Criminology, 2012

Acknowledgements

Thanks to go Dr Carla Reeves who was invaluable throughout the whole of this project.

My thanks also go to all those tutors who allowed me access to their classes and to those students who spared their time to take part in this study.

Contents

- 1) Introduction
- 2) Literature review
 - i) Definitions of homicide
 - ii) Prevalence and trends of homicide
 - iii) Perceptions of homicide
 - iv) Origins of public opinions
- 3) Research questions
- 4) Methodology
 - i) Introduction
 - ii) Research approach
 - iii) Structured questionnaire
 - iv) Sampling
 - v) Research design
 - vi) Pilot study
 - vii) Ethical issues
- 5) Results
 - i) Perceptions of homicide- sample as a whole
 - ii) Male and female respondents perception of homicide
 - iii) Perceptions of homicide by media source
- 6) Discussion
 - i) Perceptions of homicide
 - ii) Dynamics of homicide
 - iii) Limitations of the study
 - iv) Policy implications
- 7) Bibliography
- 8) Appendix 1- consent form
- 9) Appendix 2- structured questionnaire
- 10) Appendix 3- result tables
- 11) Appendix 4- ethics form

Introduction

This piece of research aims to examine students' perceptions of homicide, by examining their opinions on both the frequency and characteristics of the crime. Previous research has done little to examine the actual dynamics of homicide and this research aims to address the gap in the research.

Over the past twenty years the amount of attention attributed to crime has increased significantly, (Maguire, 2002), similarly there has also been a growing interest in public perceptions. Since New Labour were elected in 1997, there have been increasing attempts to inform the public more about crime (Hancock, 2006). However despite these attempts it still seems as though the public is unaware of the true picture of crime, Pfeiffer et al (2005) found that although the recorded crime statistics in Germany have shown a decline over the past 10 years, the public still believe that crime is rising (Pfeiffer et al, 2005), similarly, the Home Office's annual report on crime in 2009/10 showed a wide gap between people's perceptions and statistics, with 66 per cent believing that there had been an increase in crime when statistics showed a decrease (Home Office, 2010).

This study will focus on homicide as rarely a day goes by when people are not exposed to it through the media (Godsi, 1999). Homicide figures are also some of the most reliable crime figures available because they are not reliant upon the victim reporting and most cases do come to the attention of the police at some point, meaning the figures are the most accurate for comparing with people's perceptions (Roberts and Stanlans, 1997). Over the last decade there has been a steady decline in the number of homicides recorded in England and Wales (Home Office, 2011). Despite this decline, the public still believe the rate of homicide is increasing (Pfeiffer et al, 2005). This leads to the question, what other perceptions do the public have about homicide and do they accord with official figures? This is important because public opinions have a significant influence on government policies and the government can use public opinions to push forward policies that although supported, may not have any true purpose or value (Maguire, 2002). Also having a true picture of crime is important for reducing the unnecessary anxiety caused by fear of crime (Duffy et al, 2008).

This research aims to explore student's perceptions of homicide and where this knowledge comes from by examining their responses to a series of questions about homicide and then comparing the responses to the official figures from the Home Office. The main research aims shall be met through primary research, specifically through a structured questionnaire, that will ask about different aspects of homicide as well as where they get their information about crime. This research will aim to highlight the perception gap between official figures and the public's perception and therefore draw attention to the need for reliable and accurate information regarding homicide, which would then result in a more informed public and ultimately better government policy.

This dissertation shall first examine previous research around homicide as well as perception research that focuses on crime in general since there is a lack of research which particularly addresses perceptions of homicide. It shall then go on to consider the methods that have been undertaken within this piece of research as well as examining the findings. It shall then conclude by discussing what have been found and the implications of the findings.

Literature review

The literature review shall examine the definitions of homicide and the problems with some of the definitions. The police recorded crime figures for homicide shall be investigated as well as the public's perception of homicide, finally the origins of public's opinion will be considered along with research evidence.

Definitions of homicide

According to The Oxford English Dictionary (Anon, 2011a) homicide is defined as the killing of one human by another, however not all incidents of homicide are classed as criminal. There are two types of homicide, lawful and unlawful. Lawful homicide is the sanctioned killing of another person such as soldiers killed during war and unlawful homicide refers to killings that have not been sanctioned by law and are therefore criminal offences (Brookman, 2009).

In England and Wales, the term homicide includes the offences of murder, manslaughter and infanticide (House of Commons, 1999). The majority of homicides are categorised as murder or manslaughter with murder, the more serious of the two (Mitchell, 1998). Murder is the unlawful killing of a human being with malice aforethought, the intention to kill or cause Grievous Bodily Harm (The Crown Prosecution Service, 2011). Malice aforethought can cause issues in prosecution, as it is difficult to prove that someone intended to kill or commit GBH rather than a lesser offence.

Unlike murder, manslaughter has two different categories, voluntary and involuntary. Voluntary manslaughter is similar to murder as there is malice aforethought, however the person is considered not to have been in their right mind at the time of the act, this includes defences such as diminished responsibility and loss of control (CPS, 2011). In contrast, involuntary manslaughter is when there is a lack of intent to kill or cause GBH; this usually involves reckless behaviour resulting in the death of someone (Mitchell and Mackay, 2010).

The third type of offence is infanticide; the term infanticide is derived from the Latin word *infanticidium*, it was introduced in the 17th century and used to describe the abandoning or killing of a child shortly after birth (Jackson, 2006). However the more recent legal definition drawn out in the Infanticide Act 1938, states that infanticide is the wilful act by the mother, of killing her child who is under 12 months and during that act the balance of her mind is considered disturbed due to the effects of giving birth to the child (CPS, 2011).

The problem with the categorisations used for homicide in England and Wales is that not all offences in which a person is unlawfully killed are recorded as homicides such as deaths caused by dangerous driving and corporate manslaughter (CPS, 2011), meaning the figures are not truly representative of the term homicide. Also, not all countries have the same definition of homicide, for example in Scotland the homicide rate only includes the offences of murder and culpable homicide (House of Commons, 1999), which means comparisons of homicide statistics across countries have to be undertaken with caution.

Prevalence and trends of homicide

Since the research shall be considering public perceptions of homicide it is essential to examine the prevalence and trends of homicide within official statistics in order to make comparisons. However, unlike other crimes which can be explored using data from both police recorded figures and the British Crime Survey, homicide figures cannot, as the British Crime Survey is based upon asking victims about their experiences. This is impossible for the victims of homicide, so homicide figures are completely based upon police recorded statistics (Maguire, 2002).

Table 1.1 Offences initially recorded as homicide and the current number recorded as homicide (Adapted from Home Office, 2011).

	2005/6	2006/7	2007/8	2008/9	2009/10
Initially recorded	764	751	775	670	626
Currently recorded	709	715	744	644	619
Currently record per million of the population	13.3	13.3	13.8	11.8	11.3

Accordi

ng to these official figures (Table 1.1) during 2009/10 there were 626 initially recorded homicides, this figure stays the same unless the courts or police decide that a lesser offence occurred and in 2009/10 7 cases were no longer recorded as homicide, so the current figure is 619 (Home Office, 2011). This figure is down four per cent and is the lowest recorded homicide rate since 1997/8 (Home Office, 2011). The rates for homicide are also broken down into homicides per million, meaning the figures are more significant because the per million figure can account for any changes in population which could skewed the raw number of homicides. Homicide figures are also more easily manipulated when not presented per million because although Homicide rates may have fallen, the population may also have fallen which means the risk of homicide is still the same, so if not presented per million you cannot get the whole picture

Table 1.2. Outcome of homicide cases in 2005-2010 (adapted from Home Office 2011).

outcome	2005/6	2006/7	2007/8	2008/9	2009/10	Average
Murder	41%	37%	36%	35%	20%	34%
Manslaughter	24%	26%	27%	25%	11%	23%
Infanticide	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%
Suspect died/suicide	10%	4%	4%	4%	4%	5%
Proceeding discontinued	2%	1%	1%	1%	1%	1%
Pending court decision	9%	14%	13%	20%	47%	21%
No suspect/acquitted	14%	18%	18%	15%	17%	16%
suspect found insane	0%	0%	1%	0%	0%	0%
total	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	

Table 1.2 shows the outcome of homicide cases from 2005 to 2010 and the figures show that the majority of homicides are actually murders.

Figure 1.1 Breakdown of Victims and suspects according to sex (Adapted from Home office, 2011)

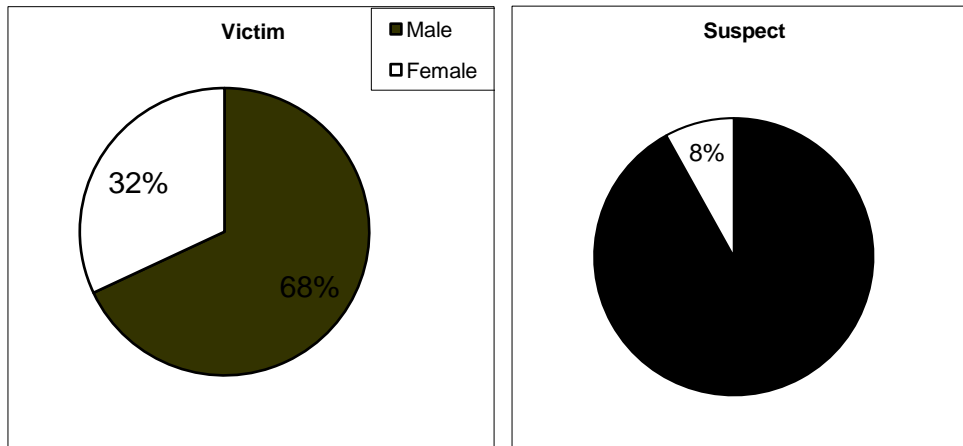


Figure 1.1 shows the sex of the victims and offenders of homicide. Regarding the age of victims and offenders, the most common age group for victims are the under ones followed by 16-29 year olds (Home office, 2011) and the average age of the offender tends to be between 31-35 followed by 21-25 year olds (Brookman, 2009)

Table 1.3 Victim and principle suspect relationship (Adapted from Home Office 2009/10)

	Male	Female	Average
Stranger	35%	13%	24%
No suspect	14%	11%	13%
Partner/ ex-partner	5%	48%	26%
Other family	5%	4%	4%
Friend/Acquaintance	34%	7%	21%
Son/daughter	4%	12%	8%
Parent	2%	6%	4%

Table 1.3 shows the different relationships between the victims and suspects of homicide, on average partners and ex-partners were the most common principle suspect in homicide cases in 2009/10. (Home Office, 2011).

Figure 1.2 Total number of homicides according to circumstance 2009/10 (Adapted from Home Office, 2011).

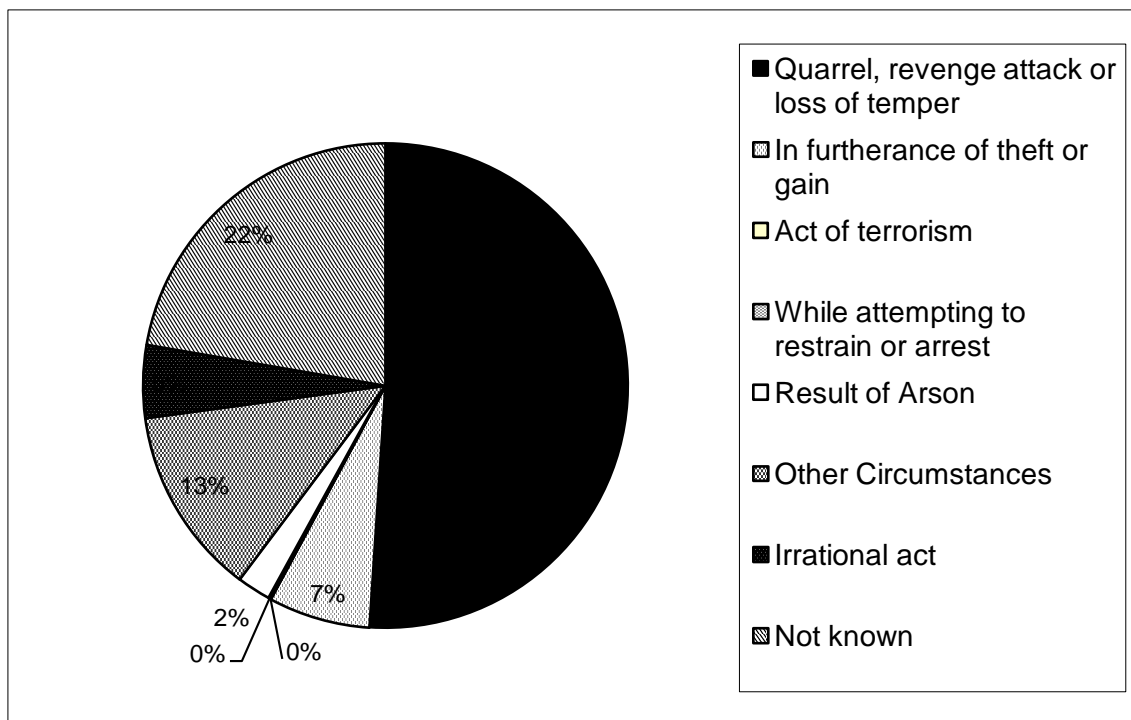


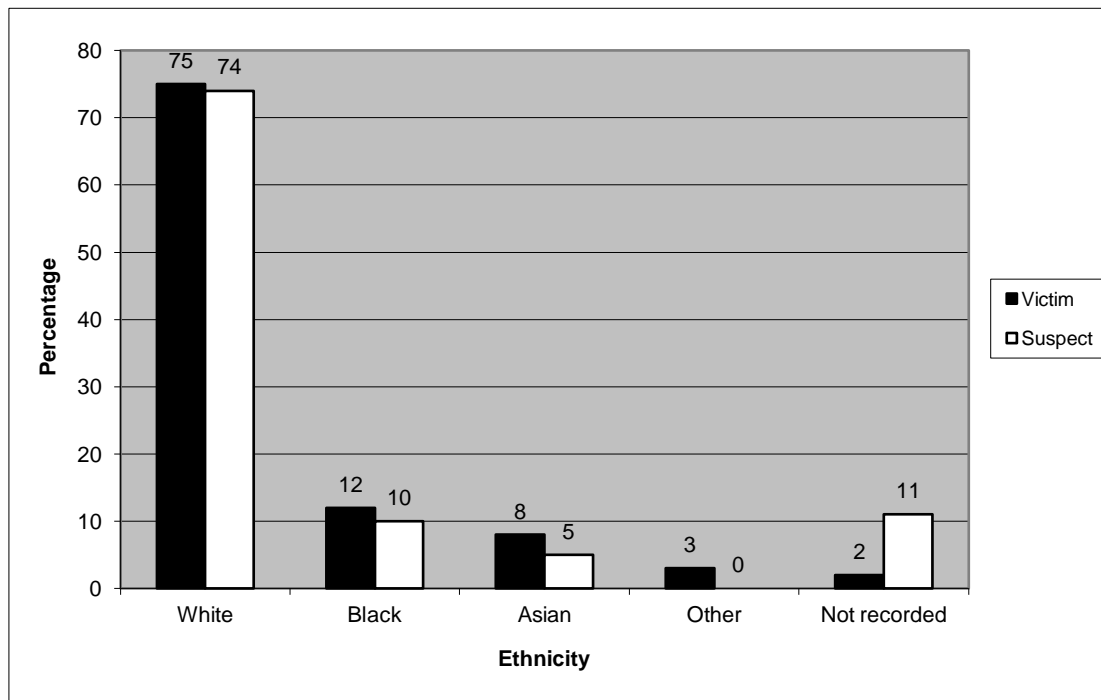
Figure 1.2 shows information on the circumstances of the homicide, unfortunately these figures are not broken down further so it cannot be accurately estimated how many homicides equate to quarrel, revenge attack or loss of temper.

Although not from the official statistics but still suggestive, research from Brookman (2009) examined where most homicide occur and 52% of homicides occur within a house (Table 1.4).

Table 1.4 Location of Homicides in three police areas 1994-1996 (Adapted from Brookman, 2005)

Location	Percent
House	52
Street/alley	16
Pub/Club	9
Open space	15
Other	6
Not known	2

Figure 1.3 Percentage of homicide offences according to ethnicity data for victims 2007-2010 (Home Office, 2011), data for suspects 1995-1997 (Peelo, et al (2004))



Unfortunately the Home Office statistics do not break down homicide offenders by ethnicity but research from Peelo et al (2004) examined ethnicity of offenders and victims from 1995-1997 and Figure 1.3 shows white people were the most likely offenders and victims of homicide. However these figures must be treated with caution as they are based on principle suspect not convicted offenders, which means that some of the people recorded may not have actually committed.

The figures for homicide are reasonably accurate because homicide is a relatively clear act to define unlike crimes such as rape and sexual assault (Godsi, 1999). However like all statistics, there is a gap often referred to as the dark figure of crime (Brookman, 2009). The dark figure of homicide tends to relate to missing people and hidden bodies, although generally the police do become aware of the majority of homicides (Brookman and Maguire, 2004). Some homicides are also subject to miss-classification, for example, suicides or accidental death or are dealt with separately such as death by dangerous driving and corporate manslaughter (CPS, 2011) There is also the issue that homicides are attributed to the crime statistics of the year it was discovered rather than the year it occurred (Brookman, 2009). Because of these reasons, the figures should be examined with caution. However unlike other crimes there is no other survey to gather homicide figures, so these figures must be relied upon for the purpose of research.

Perceptions of homicide

There is little research on people's perceptions of homicide, so some of the research figures examined are for murder, violent crime and crime in general which suggest patterns of perceptions that can be applied to the issues of homicide and compared with official statistics.

Recently there has been growing interest in public perceptions of crime, since New Labour, who prioritised dealing with fear of crime as well as actual crime, were elected in 1997, there have been attempts to inform the public more about crime (Hancock, 2006). Despite these attempts, the public is still unaware of the official picture of crime. Pfeiffer et al (2005) found that in their survey of 2000 people's perceptions of crime trends, people believed there had been a sharp increase in all crime when crime rates had actually declined. Participants were also asked about specific crimes, two of these were murder and sexual murder. Respondents overestimated the number of murders by almost double and sexual murders at nearly five times the official figures (Pfeiffer et al, 2005). Although this is only looking at one aspect of homicide which is murder, it is important research that allows us to make inferences for homicide as a whole.

Similarly, the Home Office's annual report on crime in England and Wales showed a wide gap between people's perceptions and official statistics with 66% believing that crime had increased despite the fact that crime rates were decreasing (Home Office, 2010). Similar findings were also found by Mattinson and Mirrlees-Black (2000) and Mitchell and Roberts (2012), in their studies. In Canada, McDonald (1995) found that 85% of people believed violent crime had increased despite official figures saying it had decreased. However not everyone agrees with this wide gap in public perceptions of crime, Roshier (1973) believes that public perceptions are closer to the actual amount of crime occurring than the official figures. MacDonald (2002), also suggested that the gap between actual crime and recorded crime is rather substantial, so official figures must be approached with caution.

From the research (McDonald, 1995, Pfeiffer et al, 2005), one factor surrounding people's perceptions of crime seems to stand out, that is the sex of the respondent. According to Pfeiffer et al (2005), women were more likely to overestimate all crime types more than men, the difference was particularly obvious for sexual murder where women overestimated it by over a third more than men. Likewise, McDonald (1995) found that of the people who believed crime had increased by a great deal 60% of them were women. Pfeiffer et al (2004) suggested that this difference might come from empirical based evidence, which suggests a link between women's perceived vulnerability and their fear of crime, this being that women see themselves as more vulnerable, meaning they are more fearful of crime and believe it to be more likely to occur. Although these studies did not focus on homicide specifically, the evident trend allows for inferences to be made.

Origins of public opinion

According to Williams (2008) the awareness we have of social phenomena is affected by our own personal experience. In the case of homicide, our knowledge can be affected in numerous ways; firstly it can be affected by direct contact such as victims' family or through direct police contact. Secondly and most likely, the knowledge can be gained indirectly through friends, family, work or education (Williams, 2008). However, it is hard to assess the effect each of these factors has upon public opinions. Although there is a large body of research to suggest that the media is likely to have some role in shaping public opinion (Williams, 2008).

According to Taylor and Sorenson (2002) the mass media are the main source of information for the public about crime and violence. Similarly, Smith (1984) found that 52% of the people got their information about crime from the media, however this study only looked at Birmingham, so it is hard to generalise the findings to other cities. These findings suggest that media reporting serves as substitute for direct experience since most people have not

been involved with serious crimes (Levi and Maguire, 2002). This begs the question, what image of crime (and homicide in particular) is the media portraying?

Schlesinger et al (1991) found violence against the person accounted for 4% of all offences but made up a quarter of all crime stories in quality newspapers and 46% in popular press. In his study Reiner (2002), found that on television there were 7 murders for every hundred characters on screen, this was 1400 times the actual murder rate for the same period of time in the United States (Reiner, 2002). Again this is only one aspect of homicide so cannot generalise to all areas.

These studies have concentrated on where people get their information about crime from and the nature of that information, but not how that affects their perceptions, one such theory that does is cultivation theory, introduced by George Gerbner in 1976 (Lett et al, 2004). His theory suggests, the more time people spend watching television, the more likely that their view of the world will reflect what they see on television (Cohen and Weimann, 2000). In reference to crime, it is suggests misrepresentations of offenders and victims as well as over-representation of certain crimes will result in the viewer having a distorted view of reality (Brown, 2001). Morgan and Shanahan (1997) conducted a meta-analysis of over two decades of cultivation research and found significant cultivation effects. This supports Gerbner and Gross's earlier research which found that heavy viewers of television were more likely to give television answers to questions about crime and law enforcement (Gerbner and Gross, 1976). The over-representative patterns of news coverage is not without consequence, as increased coverage of crime can lead to greater public concern about crime, which in turn can lead to a greater personal fear of crime (Goidel et al, 2006). Some researchers also suggest that it is not just television but all mass media that impacts on a person's view of the world (Tyler and Cook, 1984).

The cultivation theory also helps to explain, why women might have a more distorted view of violent crime than men because according to Signorielli (1989) women television characters are more likely to be victims of homicide. Similarly, Brown (2001) found that women are likely to be the victim of homicide 42% of the time in fiction when in reality the likelihood of being a victim is 25%. Although some feminists argue that the difference in perceptions between males and females is due to socialisation, women are taught to be more fearful than men and the media then reinforces the view by showing an increasing number of female victims (Cops and Pleysier, 2011).

Another idea is that the media's influence works through the view-point of affinity, suggesting that the similarities with the presented victim and the viewer can account for the differences in the expressed levels of fear among different groups, for example, if female homicide victims are regularly presented in the media then female viewers will make a connection with the victim and may then believe that they as a female, are more likely to be a victim (Eschholz et al. 2003)

However not all are convinced by cultivation theories, Hawkins and Pingree (1981) argue that television genres do not effect world views, based on their findings in a study on Australian school children though this refers to general views of the world rather than specifically crime. Grabe and Drew (2007) also found little evidence of cultural affects associated with crime drama, although they did find some evidence for cultivation with non-fictional violence. So perhaps it is not television as a whole but rather certain types of factual programmes that have an effect on people's perceptions. Gillespie and Mclaughlin's (2002)

study of media effects on attitudes to crime concluded that media representations do not have a strong effect on peoples knowledge, views or attitudes to crime and found that most respondents had a punitive attitude towards crime in the first place, this was the case in both those who had been exposed to a little or a lot of media. However this does not mean that the media does not have an effect, it could be that even a small amount of media can effect someone's perception. There may also be the suggestion that the media know what people's views are, so they instead reflect and reinforce the public's view rather than offering an opposing opinion (Williams, 2008).

Research questions

After conducting the literature review these are the questions, which have been derived and which will be investigated by this study.

1. Do students' perceptions of homicide correlate with official statistics?
 - Characteristics of offenders and victims
 - Prevalence
 - Motivations
 - Location

These questions are being researched because although there are many studies on perceptions of crime compared to official statistics (Pfeiffer et al, 2005, Marci,1995), few have solely focused on homicide and the dynamics of it. Research from Pfeiffer et al (2005) found that crime prevalence is over estimated and this study would like to examine whether similar results would be found in respect to homicide.

2. Do female respondents have a different view to male respondents?

Research from Pfeiffer et al (2005) shows that women tend to overestimate crime more than men and according to research, (Hough and Mayhew, 1983) women are more afraid of crime than men and this fear of crime may alter perceptions. So men and women do have different perceptions as suggested by Hough and Mayhew, (1983) or not.

3. Does the respondent's primary source on crime affect their perceptions?

Research cites the media as the primary source of information on crime (Smith, 1984; Taylor and Sorenson ,2002) and the media are known for over representing crime (Reiner, 2002). So does the respondents' primary source of information on crime alter their perspective of homicide and is it more prominent for certain sources, such as Television as suggested by Cohen and Weimann (2000).

The hypothesis for this research is that the majority of people will not have a true picture of homicide; this will be particularly true for those who site the media as their main source of information on crime

Methodology

Introduction

This research aims to explore student's perceptions of homicide, in order to do so a primary method of data collection was implemented. The primary data collection method used was a structured questionnaire to be completed by one hundred students at Huddersfield University. This methodology shall consider the methodological background behind the choice to use collection surveys as well as the advantages and disadvantages of this. Finally the sampling method used and ethical considerations for the study will be examined.

Research approach

Since the aim of this research is to explore students perceptions of homicide the only way to investigate those opinions is through primary research because with secondary data there is no control over the questions asked so it is likely that the data will not answer the research questions posed (Riedel, 2000). This project shall be based on quantitative research rather than qualitative because the research is recording variations in social life through different categories that vary in amount, for example how many times homicide occurs rather than what they think about homicide (Bachman and Schutt, 2008). This survey is about recording what people think but in a numerical way by looking for trends and patterns in these opinions, which means that qualitative research is not the preferred method, because qualitative research is about examining the social world through participant's experiences, rather than by predetermined categories and often the data produced does not have a numerical outcome (Schutt, 2009).

This quantitative research project is grounded in positivism because it adheres to a strict research design involving a deductive approach regards the testing of the theory (Bryman, 2001). Because positivism holds the position, that the study of social science should be the same as the study of natural sciences it means that any research should be as objective as possible (Bryman, 2001). Objective being value free, devoid of personal opinion or bias, meanings the researchers own opinions play no part in the outcome of the research (Hughes & Sharrock, 2007). Also because of the numerical basis of the data it means that it can be compared to official figures that have similar numerical data as well as generalised to a wider population providing the sampling is adequate (Davis and Francis, 2011). The positivist view of social research is that it should be used to explain facts, causes and effects in order to predict, which is what this project is looking at (Sarantakos, 1993). Unlike quantitative research, qualitative research seeks to answer "what" rather than the "how often" question (Lakshman et al, 2000).

Structured questionnaire

The decision to use a structure questionnaire was based on several reasons. Firstly because it is structured, the data gathered is numerical and more easily comparable (Davies & Francis, 2011), which is important since one of the research questions is based on the comparison between these results and official statistics. Secondly questionnaires are a convenient method which allows a large population to be reached relatively cheaply and easily (Moser & Kalton,

1972), which is particularly important in a student project. Thirdly, the increased objectivity, which is the basis of positivism, that is gained with a structured questionnaire over an interview because even when the interview is structured the researcher is still present and likely to affect the participants' response (Bryman, 2001).

Despite this, structured questionnaires do have disadvantages which include the ability for the participant to leave questions unanswered (Alereck & Settle, 1995), lack of overly difficult questions shall hopefully avoid this happening in this study. There is also the issue that with structured questionnaires you cannot ask for additional information like you could in an interview (Sarantakos, 1993), however because most of the questions included in this project are relatively simple there would not be a need for further information. Because of the self-completion nature of questionnaires, the questions do not have to be answered in the given order, this can be a problem because as a researcher you have chosen a specific order for your questions to be answered in to avoid the questions influencing the participants response (Sarantakos, 1993). Also, no matter how well a questionnaire has been designed some respondents may misunderstand a question or a respondent could knowingly lie in order to create a certain image (Lakshman et al, 2000).

It is not just questionnaires that have disadvantages but the whole quantitative approach has issues. Firstly is the fact that quantitative research is supposed to be objective, this is impossible to achieve because the researcher is always going to be influenced by their view of the world meaning complete objectivity is unobtainable (Sarantakos, 1993). Some also argue that natural science methods are not appropriate for the study of social phenomena because individuals are not natural elements, they have their own views, wishes and interests (Sarantakos, 1993). There is also the concern that variables in quantitative data may hide some hidden meaning, for example if there is a difference between men and women's' perceptions of homicide, quantitative data can only show us the difference, unlike qualitative which can explore how and why there is a difference (Gelo et al, 2008).

Sampling

Because of the nature of this project the choice of sampling methods were limited, in a larger scale project the use of stratified sampling would be ideal because participants could be stratified according to sex and age meaning a more representative sample (Moser & Kalton, 1972), however because of time constraints, convenience sampling was used. Convenience sampling is a method of sampling based on availability and accessibility (Bryman, 2001), unfortunately because of this it means that the findings will not be generalizable to the larger population.

The participants used for this study are students at the University of Huddersfield but the sample will not include criminology students based on the assumption that they will have a more accurate knowledge of the subject of homicide and will therefore bias the sample. The sample will aim for 100 participants; this is as large a sample as possible given the time and scale of the project but is also large enough for statistical analysis. Questionnaires are often subject to a poor response rate (Bryman, 2001) but because the respondents for this particular study are students, the questionnaires are given out in lectures therefore giving them time to complete them.

Research design

In this research project the majority of questions that are being asked are closed questions such as which sex do you think is most likely to be the victim of homicide? The choice of

answers is male or female. The reason for closed questions is because it is easy to process the answers because a code can be assigned to each response, which then also enhances the comparability of the answers (Bryman, 2001). Closed questions with a vertical format have been chosen for this study, this provides a more clear view of the answers, allowing for less confusion if completing in haste (Bryman, 2001). The choice has also been made to use forced choice questions, which are questions that do not include 'don't know' response (Schutt, 2009), this is to made people think about their answer instead of choosing the easy 'don't know' option.

The language used in the questions is relatively simple, so questionnaire can be answered with ease and there has been an avoidance of double-barrelled questions to stop any difficulties with ambiguity. The order of the questions has been considered carefully with the choice to make sure all the questions regards victims of homicide are asked before moving on to ask about perpetrators of homicide, this is so that participant do not have to move from one subject to another they can instead concentrate on one area at a time (Bryman, 2001)

For the questions that looked at demographics of victims and offenders such as ethnicity and age, the response categories were adapted from official Home Office Statistics and the British crime survey, so when it comes to analysis, a comparison between official statistics should be relatively straight forward. The question about the respondents' main source of information on crime came for the sources cited by Williams (2008), although in this survey the category media has been broken down into television news or documentary, television drama, films and newspapers. This is so that the individual sources can be examined and compared to see if there is a difference in accuracy between different areas of media.

Pilot study

In order to check the clarity of the questionnaire, a pilot study was conducted. The pilot study was undertaken by 10 people, afterwards the participants were asked; were the instructions clear, were there any questions that were unclear or ambiguous, any topics or responses missing, was the layout clear and any further comments. On average the questionnaire took around five minutes to complete and the respondents said the questions were clear but mentioned that the questions should specify that only one answer was required per question, so that detail was added to the final questionnaire. The pilot study also highlighted that although participants were asked to answer question 3 with a percent, many did not and answered numerically, so to make this clearer on the final questionnaire, percentage symbols were added to the answer line. Participants said that there were no topics or responses missing and that the layout was clear which meant that the layout could stay the same for the final study. However respondents pointed out that the age range given for offenders went too young, so the first two categories were removed meaning in the final study the age for offenders starts at 5-10 years since 10 is the age of criminal responsibility in England and Wales. All these changes were made before the final study was handed out and completed.

Ethical issues

With any research it is vital that ethical issues are treated with the utmost importance (Bryman, 2001). With primary research, ethics are particularly important because you are directly dealing with the public. Ethical issues that affect this project are informed consent, because the research is voluntary, it is important to make sure the participant is fully aware what is involved with the project and that they give their consent to be involved (Bryman, 2001). Then the right to withdraw, which is when participants can choose to have their information and responses removed from the study (Hagan, 2005). Also the privacy and

confidentiality of the respondent's responses and details must be maintained unless previously stated and accepted by the participants (Schutt, 2009). There must also be no harm brought to those who are taking part whether this is emotional or physical harm (Hagan, 2005). As a researcher it is also important to be honest and open with the methods and findings of the project so that other researchers can validate the findings (Schutt, 2009)

In this project participant were given an information sheet, which detailed the aims of the project as well as a consent form. The information sheet gave details of the aims of the project, information on the researcher as well as contact information if any further information was required. Participants were also given anonymity for completion of the questionnaire and informed that their details would not be passed on to other sources. At the end of the survey participants were given a sheet with contact numbers on so if they wanted to withdraw from the study they could and also if they had been adversely affected by the study there were further contact details. These considerations were all put in place in order to avoid any harm to the participants as a result of this research. An ethics form was completed and approved by the Huddersfield University ethics committee which in turn means the research complies with the British society of criminology ethical guidelines.

Results

This section will be examining the finding from the primary research conducted; overall the research sample was 102 students from the University of Huddersfield. Of the sample 26% were male and 74% were female.

Perceptions of homicide- sample as a whole

The first question the participants were asked was where they got their information about crime from and the majority of people got their information from TV news and documentaries, followed by newspapers (See Appendix, 3). They were then asked, how many homicides do you think occur in England and Wales per year?

Figure 2.1 Number of homicides per year according to all respondents

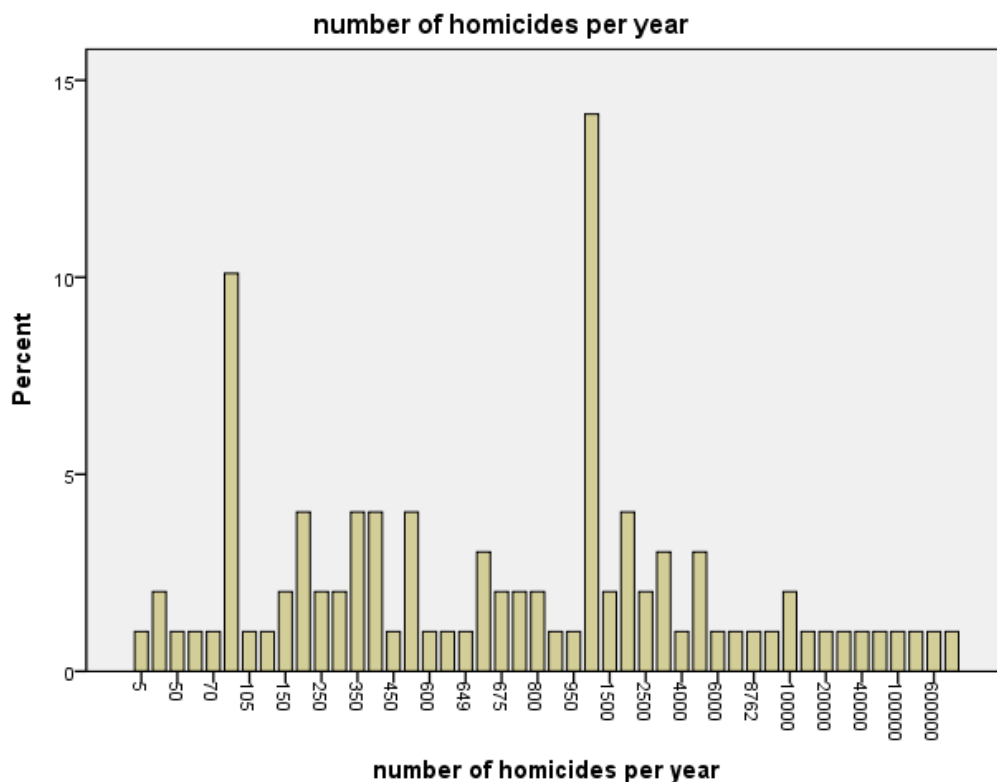


Figure 2.2 Homicide categories for all respondents



Figure 2.2 shows the majority of people (44%) underestimated the number of homicides. The participants were then asked to break down the figure for homicide into how many per cent they thought were murder, manslaughter and infanticide. The figures in the table have been categorised into official figures and above and below official figures (Table 2.1).

Table 2.1 Estimated proportions of murder, manslaughter and infanticide.

Murder proportions	Participant response
1-32%	59%
33-36% (Official figure)	5%
37-100%	36%
Manslaughter proportions	Participant response
1-20%	5%
21-25% (Official figure)	2%
26-100%	93%
Infanticide proportions	Participant response
0-1% (Official figure)	7%
over 1%	93%

Table 2.2 Estimate of the homicide rate over the past ten years

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid increased	51	50.0	50.0	50.0
decreased	13	12.7	12.7	62.7
stayed the same	38	37.3	37.3	100.0
Total	102	100.0	100.0	

Table 2.2 showed that 50% of the respondents thought that the homicide rate had increased over the past 10 years (See appendix 3 for further responses).

Perspectives of homicide victims- sample as a whole

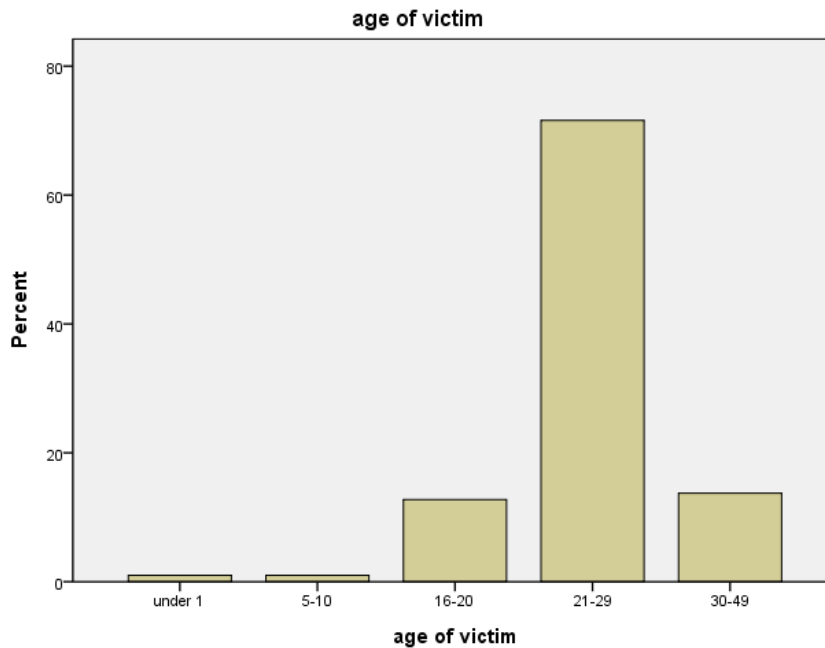
Sixty four per cent of the respondents thought that females were most likely to be the victim of homicide. The majority of the sample also thought that the victim was most likely to be white. (See appendix).

Table 2.3 Victim and offender relationship

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid stranger	8	7.8	7.9	7.9
partner/ex	59	57.8	58.4	66.3
other	7	6.9	6.9	73.3
family				
other	27	26.5	26.7	100.0
known				
Total	101	99.0	100.0	
Missing 99	1	1.0		
Total	102	100.0		

Table 2.3 shows the most common relationship between victim and offender was thought to be partner or ex-partner and figure 2.3 shows the majority of respondents thought that the most common age for a victim of homicide was 21– 29.

Figure 2.3 Age of victim



Perceptions of homicide perpetrators- sample as a whole

Almost all respondents thought that males were the most likely perpetrators of homicide and 76% thought that the perpetrator would be white and 53% thought the perpetrator would be between the ages of 21 and 29. (see appendix 3 for full tables).

Male and female respondents' perceptions of homicide

After examining the sample as a whole, the figures were broken down into male and female respondents' in order to see if there was any difference in responses between the sexes.

Table 2.4 Homicide categories according to sex of respondent

sex of participant			Frequency	Percent
male	Valid	under 600	13	50.0
		601 to 1000	10	38.5
		1001 plus	3	11.5
		Total	26	100.0
female	Valid	under 600	32	42.7
		601 to 1000	17	22.7
		1001 plus	26	34.7
		Total	75	100.0
99	Valid	1001 plus	1	100.0

Table 2.4 shows males and females responses regarding the number of homicides and that females overestimated the number of homicides more than males, however the results were not statistically significant, chi-square= 5.632, df= 2, p= .060. The chi square test was used as the data produced is nominal, the expected count was higher than five and because it is comparing two variables. As the table was 2x2 the continuity correction is the figure used (Further responses, see appendix 3.).

Table 2.5 male and female response for murder, manslaughter and infanticide proportions

Murder proportions	Male response	Female response
1-32%	62%	58%
33-36% (Official figure)	8%	4%
37-100%	30%	38%
Manslaughter proportions	Male response	Female response
1-20%	4%	5%
21-25% (Official figure)	4%	1%
26-100%	92%	93%
Infanticide proportions	Male response	Female response
0-1% (Official figure)	8%	7%
over 1%	92%	93%

Table 2.5 shows the figures for male and female participants' estimates for each homicide category which are then broken down into the categories of above, below and in line with official statistics. These findings were not significantly significant, (murder) Chi-square= .815, df= 2, p= .665, (Manslaughter), Chi-square= .694, df= 2, p= .707 and (Infanticide) Chi-square= .031, df=1, p= .859. For the rate over the past 10 years, 27% of males said it had decreased compared to 8% of female respondents, this figure was found to be statistically significant, Chi-square= 4.593, df= 1, p= .032 (see appendix 3).

Male and female perceptions of homicide victims

Table 2.6 Sex of victim according to respondent's sex

sex of participant			Frequency	Percent
male	Valid	male	14	53.8
		female	12	46.2
		Total	26	100.0
female	Valid	male	23	30.7
		female	52	69.3
		Total	75	100.0
99	Valid	female	1	100.0

Table 2.6 shows that the majority of women thought that females were most likely to be the victim of homicide where-as males thought males were the more likely victim, although the result was not found to be statistically significant, Chi-square= 4.359, df=1, p= .060, (see appendix 3) again chi-square and continuity correction were used as the data was nominal and was looking at two variables.

Regarding victim and offender relationships, 60% of female cited partners or ex partners compared to 54% of males, although the findings were not statistically significant, chi-square= .101, df= 1, p= .751 (see appendix 3).

Male and female perception of homicide perpetrators

Almost all respondents thought white males were the most likely perpetrator of homicide (see appendix 3). 47% of females estimated the age of the perpetrator as 30-49 which is in line with official figures, compared only to 31% males, although these figures were not statistically significant, Chi-square= 1.399, df= 1, p=.237 (See appendix 3).

Perceptions of homicide by media source

The majority of people cited TV news and documentaries as their main source of information on crime (Figure 2.3) with more women than men choosing TV news and documentaries as the main source (Table 2.7). This was found to be statistically significant, Chi squared=11.328, df= 5, p= .045 (See Appendix 3). In order to make analysis easier, the other responses were merged into one category named other, meaning that the figures were more evenly distributed between the two categories making for a more meaningful comparison.

Figure 2.3 Main source of information on crime

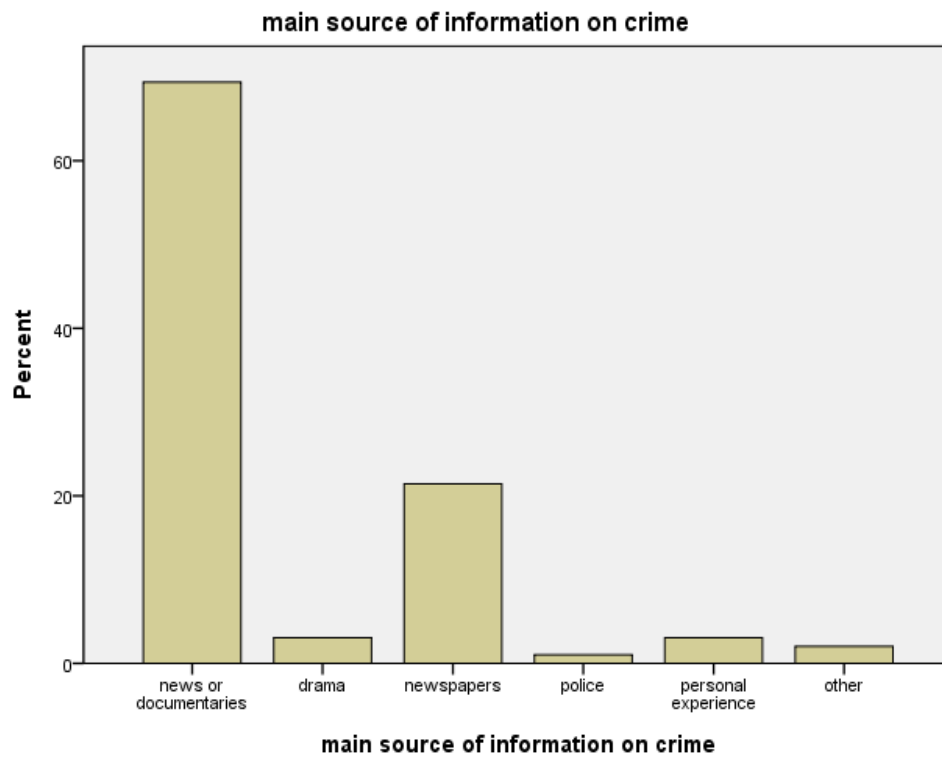


Table 2.7 media source according to respondent's sex

sex of participant * main source of information on crime Crosstabulation

		main source of information on crime						Total
		news or documentaries	drama	newspapers	police	personal experience	other	
sex of participant	male	Count 15	0	7	0	3	1	26
	% within sex of participant	57.7%	.0%	26.9%	.0%	11.5%	3.8%	100.0%
sex of participant	female	Count 52	3	14	1	0	1	71
	% within sex of participant	73.2%	4.2%	19.7%	1.4%	.0%	1.4%	100.0%

Table 2.8 homicide categories according to media source

source of info on crime	homicide categories	Frequency	Percent
TV news/documentaries	under 600	28	41.2
	601 to 1000	16	23.5
	1001 plus	24	35.3
	Total	68	100
other source	under 600	17	50
	601 to 1000	11	32.4
	1001 plus	6	17.6
	Total	34	100

Table 2.8 shows that those who cited TV news and documentaries as their primary source of information on crime are more likely to overestimate the number of homicides compared to other sources, although this figure is not statistically significant, Chi-square= 3.467, df= 2, p=.177. (see appendix 3).

Victims of homicide by media source

Table 2.9 source of info on crime and sex of victim

			sex of victim		Total
			male	female	
source of info on crime	TV news/documentaries	Count	19	49	68
		Expected Count	24.7	43.3	68.0
		% within source of info on crime	27.9%	72.1%	100.0%
	other source	Count	18	16	34
		Expected Count	12.3	21.7	34.0
		% within source of info on crime	52.9%	47.1%	100.0%

Table 2.9 shows that those who chose TV news and documentaries as their main source of information on crime thought that females were more likely to be victims of homicide than males. This figure was found to be statistically significant, Chi-square= 5.095, df= 1, p= .024 (see appendix 3).

Perpetrators of homicide by media source

The figures for perpetrators tended to be similar for each source of media as well as being correct according to the official figures and because of the similarity there was no need for a test of statistical significances (For the full breakdown of the figures see the appendix 3).

Discussion

This chapter will examine the results of the present study and compare them with the previous research as well as with official figures. It shall first consider the perceptions of homicide and then go on to examine the dynamics of homicide. The chapter shall then discuss whether the findings from the present study, specifically the differences between male and female respondents, as well as considering the statistically significant results of the media sources.

Perceptions of homicide

This present study confirms some of the findings of previous research (McDonald, 1995; Pfeiffer et al, 2005; Home Office, 2010), that public perceptions of crime and in this case homicide are not in line with official figures. However unlike the previous research, the findings showed that more people underestimated the number of homicides per year (44%) than over estimated it (29%). Although, when asked whether they thought the rate of homicides over the past ten years had increased, decreased or stayed the same, the majority of respondents believe that the rate had increased despite official figures suggesting the rate of homicide was actually on the decrease. This was a similar finding to research by Mattinson and Mirrlees-Black (2000) and Mitchell and Roberts (2012). Although the findings from the present study found that more people answered according to official figures by saying the figures had decreased (13%) than the sample in Mitchell and Roberts study where only 5% selected the correct response. This difference could have just been chance, however it could be because the sample in the present study consisted of just university students, whereas Mitchell and Roberts study used a wide range of participants and in their findings they found a difference between people's perceptions of crime and their education level (Mitchell and Roberts, 2012), those with higher education being more accurate compared to official figures than those with a lower educational achievement. These findings were also echoed by McDonald (1999) who found that only 38% of university educated people thought violent crime had increased dramatically compare to 62% of people who did not finish high school, this could possibly be down to the fact that university students are expected to read newspapers and be up to date on current issues as part of their studies or could simply be coincidence.

The findings from the present study seem at odds with the findings of previous research because the majority of respondents underestimated the number of homicides but still thought that the rate was increasing. The possibility for the discord between the two findings could be due to the fact that the question asked for the number of homicides per year, so participants were asked to estimate a figure which is a process that is highly subjective (Stellman and Greene, 2005), which explains the range of responses from 5 to 830,000 homicides per year. The findings which suggest that homicide is on the increase could be down to the excessive media coverage of murder cases and are consistent with other research on public misperceptions in other countries such as Australia and Canada (McDonald, 1999; Weatherburn and Indermaur 2004), although this is only one aspect of homicide and unfortunately these previous studies do not specify where the respondent got their information from.

When participants were asked to break down homicide into its three component parts and guess the proportion for each one, 59% of people underestimated the percentage of murders,

93% of participants' overestimated manslaughter and infanticide. This finding is surprising since research suggests that media coverage has an influence on people's perception (Weatherburn, Matka and Lind, 1996, Brown, 2001) and this study found media to be the predominate source of information on crime. However, since the media tends to over-report sensationalised murders in preference to manslaughter cases, it would be expected that the results would show more people overestimating murder rather than manslaughter (Peelo et al, 2004). The finding could be because manslaughter is considered a lesser crime than murder because in many cases, manslaughter is a result of reckless behaviour rather than intended (Mitchell and Mackay, 2010), therefore people may think it more likely to occur than murder.

The present study also brought out some interesting findings regarding gender of the respondent and accordance with official statistics. One of the findings that was statistically significant was the perception of the homicide rate over the past ten years, 27% of males in the sample were correct according to official source by assuming the homicide rate had decrease compared with only 8% of females. This was a similar finding to previous research by Pfeiffer et al (2005) and McDonald (1999) who also found that women overestimated crime more than men. This overestimation is said to be linked to fear of crime because the more coverage a crime gets, the more people believe it to be occurring, therefore making them more afraid of it (Gilchrist et al, 1998). Pfeiffer et al (2005) suggested that the difference between the sexes was down to a link between vulnerability and fear of crime, i.e. women are considered more vulnerable than men. This links with the victimisation model of fear of crime, which suggests that fear of crime is caused by direct or indirect experiences of criminal victimisation (Skogan and Maxfield, 1981). According to the indirect victimisation model those who see themselves as physically or socially vulnerable are likely to have a higher level of fear of crime (Karakus et al, 2010). Therefore women and the elderly who tend to have a high fear of crime are said to have this fear because of their perceived greater physical vulnerability to victimisation, despite the fact that both these groups are less likely to be victimised according to official statistics (Taylor and Hale, 1986). Whereas feminists argue there is no such thing as the fear-crime paradox and that the actual level of victimization of women is not captured in official statistics or victim surveys, consequently, women's fears are not irrational, but rational when compared to their real risk of being victimized and harassed (Cops and Pleysier, 2011).

The findings also showed a difference between prevalence of homicide and media source with those who cited TV news and documentaries as their main source of information on crime over-estimating the number of homicides more than other sources. Although the finding was not statistically significant, it did show a trend which could be explained by media effects because according to Sheley and Ashkins' study (1981), newspapers dedicated 12% to homicide coverage, whereas TV news channels dedicated around 49%, meaning those who watch TV news are exposed to more coverage of homicide than those who read newspapers. It may also be due to the different ways in which newspapers and TV news programmes deliver their information, Television news reports tend to be episodic, meaning crime-related stories are covered with just one account and with little context (Iyengar 1991, Druckman 2005). Whereas, newspaper reports are more thematic and stories unfold over days with more in-depth coverage of the context of the situation, meaning people are more informed about the crime (Callanan and Rosenberger, 2011).

This next section shall examine the responses about the dynamics of homicide such as age and sex of the perpetrators and victims.

Dynamics of homicide

For the majority of questions that look at the dynamics of homicide such as location, circumstance and relationship between offender and victim, the results show that most people's answers were in line with official statistics. Most people cited the partner/ex-partner as the perpetrator, the home for the location, quarrel, loss of temper or revenge attack as the circumstance. The participants were also accurate according to official figures, regarding the ethnicity of the victim and offender with the majority of respondents suggesting that both were white. Some of the findings may be down to more high profiled cases of homicide which have involved partners/ex-partners in the home such as the Raoul Moat case. The findings could also be down to coincidence, as participants were given only a few multiple choice answers, if the question had been open perhaps the answers would not have been so close to official figures.

The age of the victim and offender was also something that the participants did not answer according to the Home Office; this may be due to the increased exposure of younger offenders and victims being reported by the media particularly regarding knife crime (Summers, 2008).

The findings of the present study showed that the majority of respondents thought that females were most likely to be the victim of homicide despite official figures suggesting that males are in fact the most likely victims of homicide. When these findings were broken down into gender, it was found that female respondents thought that women were the most likely victim and male respondents thought men were the most likely victim. However, this result was not found to be statistically significant, perhaps due to the small unequal sample of participants. Despite this, a pattern was seen and the difference may be down to media representations of homicide victims. Serious crimes particularly homicide, which are rare and which often involve female victims are over-reported and exaggerated in the media (Ditton and Duffy 1982). According to Signorielli (1989) women television characters are more likely to be victims of homicide and Brown (2001) found that women are likely to be the victim of homicide 42% of the time in fiction when in reality the likelihood of being a victim is 25%. Weatherburn et al (1996) found that women overestimate their likelihood of victimisation, which can be linked to the physical vulnerabilities women perceived about themselves (Karakus et al, 2010), as discussed in the previous section regarding perceptions of homicide. Though, in this study it is not possible to determine whether men were actually more in line with official statistics about the victim of homicide or whether each sex identifies with a victim, according to perceived similarities between themselves and the victim, so men take more notice when men are victims and females take more notice when females are victims (Winkel and Vrij, 1990). This is the media effect theory of affinity, which suggests that the similarity in experience with the presented victim explains the differences in the expressed levels of fear among different groups (Eschholz et al. 2003).

The type of information source was also something that was analysed in the present study to examine whether where someone got their information on crime from had an effect on perceptions. Although most of the findings for the different sources of information were very similar, there was one category that showed a significant difference that was for sex of victim. Those who cited TV news and documentaries as their main source thought females were the most likely victims of homicide, whereas those who cited newspapers thought men were most likely victims. The media focuses a lot of attention on homicide, so people are constantly exposed to it (Roberts and Stanlans, 1997) and the media is one of many factors that can affect how a person perceives homicide (Brookman, 2009). However the media tends to exaggerate certain crimes and certain victims particularly white females (Newburn, 2007). It is these misrepresentations that can skew public awareness and perceptions of the

prevalence and dynamics of homicide (Taylor and Sorenson, 2002). The difference between the sources of information and the sex of the victim could be down to the amount and type of coverage each medium gives homicide, as mentioned previously, Sheley and Ashkins, (1981), found newspapers dedicated 12% to homicide coverage, whereas TV news channels dedicated around 49% and as already shown women tend to be over-represented in these reports and TV news reports are more episodic and less detailed than newspapers. These factors could be why people who watch TV news think women are the most likely victims of homicide.

Although these findings from the present study appear to be significant thus supporting media affects, further analysis found that the majority of those who chose TV news and documentaries as their main source of information were actually female and as already established females felt that they were the most likely victim of homicide. From this study it is not possible to determine the direction of the relationship, is it that media representations cause the female audience to think they are more likely to be victims, or is that females already see themselves as most likely victims through some other reason but happen to get their information from TV news more than men. Or it may be possible that these issues could be connected by another unmeasured issue such as perhaps women are more likely to internalise news stories on crimes against women, the affinity theory (Eschholz et al. 2003)..

The present study confirms previous research which shows that most people's overall view of homicide is inaccurate compared to official figures and the extent of this inaccuracy varies across gender groups. However the findings also showed that when it came to the dynamics of homicide such as relationships, motivation, and location of offences, most respondents were generally in line with official figures which was not expected since the majority of homicides which are reported in newspapers tend to cite strangers as the perpetrators and the street as the location (Sorenson et al, 1998; Peelo et al, 2004).

Limitations and research implications

The findings of this study must be taken with caution since the sample used was relatively small and consisted of only students, as well as it being dominated by female respondents (74%). Because of this, the figures cannot be generalised to the wider population, the findings are also only based on homicide and not any other type of crime. There has to be caution taken when trying to attribute the inaccuracies down to the media as many theorists still contest the assumption that media affects perception (Gillespie and McLaughlin, 2002). If a further study was to be conducted, it would be ideal to open the sample to the general public as this could have produced more varied findings. Also had there been a greater age range in the sample it would have been interesting to break the findings down according to age to see if older and younger people had different perceptions, unfortunately as the sample used only university students the age range was quite limited. A further study may also allow for a more detailed analysis of why people thought what they did about homicide and explore whether it was to do with fear of crime or that they were influenced by the media, as this would help to further explain the findings of this study

Conclusion and Policy implications

Overall this study attempted to address the gap in the area of perceptions' of homicide specifically, in the area of dynamics of homicide. The research questions were addressed and the study found that the respondent's view of homicide is somewhat different to official statistics, in particular with reference to the prevalence. However, respondents did appear to have a greater knowledge regarding the dynamics of homicide such as the location,

motivations and relationships involved than expected. The research also found that there was a difference between male and female respondent's view of homicide, which supports the previous work from McDonald (1995) and Pfeiffer et al, (2005). The findings also suggest that where a person gets their information about crime from can effect a person's perception (Smith, 1984; Taylor and Sorenson ,2002), in particular in respect to the sex of the victim. Although these findings could not be entirely attributed to the source of media since the balance of male and female responses may have skewed the findings.

Despite the fact that the findings from this study cannot be generalised, they do follow the general pattern of other research in the field of perceptions of crime (McDonald, 1995; Pfeiffer et al, 2005). The skewed perception of crime which many people have is an important issue, since public opinion is influential in shaping government spending priorities in law and order (Weatherburn and Indermaur, 2004). Therefore if public concern about crime is fuelled by an exaggerated or inaccurate view of the risks of victimisation, then the government need to put strategies in place to ensure a well and accurately informed public (Weatherburn et al, 1996). Similar recent research has shown that people who incorrectly think crime has risen tend to have less confidence in the criminal justice system and a loss of public confidence in the criminal justice system which is something that all governments should try to avoid at all costs (Weatherburn and Indermaur, 2004).

References

Akers, R. L., La Greca, A. J. and Sellers, C. (1987). 'Fear of Crime and Victimization Among the Elderly in Different Types of Communities.' *Criminology*. Vol. 25, pp.487–505.

Alreck, P. L. & Settle, R. B. (1995) *The survey research handbook: Guidelines and strategies for conducting a survey*. 2nd ed. USA: Irwin professional publishing.

Anon (ND) *Infanticide act 1938* [Online] available at:
<http://www.legislation.gov.uk/ukpga/Geo6/1-2/36/section/1> [accessed 12th October 2011]

Anon (2011a) *Infanticide* [Online] available at:
<http://oxforddictionaries.com/definition/infanticide> [accessed 12th October 2011]

Bachman, R. & Schutt, R. K. (2008) *Fundamentals of research in criminology and criminal justice*. London: Sage publications Ltd.

Braungart, M. M., Braungart, R. G. and Hoyer, W. J. (1980). 'Age, Sex, and Social Factors in Fear of Crime.' *Sociological Focus*. Vol.13, pp. 55–66.

Brookman, F. (2009) *Understanding Homicide*. London: Sage publication Ltd.

Brookman, F & Maguire, M. (2004) 'Reducing Homicide: A review of the possibilities'. *Crime, Law & Social Change*. Vol. 42, pp. 325-403

Brown, N. J. (2001) 'A comparison of fictional television crime and crime index statistics'. *Communication research reports*. Vol. 18, (2), pp. 192-199

Bryman, A. (2001) *Social Research methods*. Oxford: Oxford university press.

Callanan, V. J. & Rosenberger, J. S. (2011), 'Media and public perceptions of the police: examining the impact of race and personal experience'. *Policing and Society: An International Journal of Research and Policy*, Vol. 21, (2), pp. 167-189

Chiricos, T., Eschholz, S., and Gertz, M. (1997) Crime, News and Fear of Crime: Towards an Identification of Audience Effects. *Social Problems*, Vol. 44, (3), pp. 342-357

Clemente, F and Kleiman. M. B. (1977). 'Fear of Crime in the United States: A Multivariate Analysis.' *Social Forces*. Vol. 56: pp. 519–31.

Cohen, J. & Weimann, G.(2000) 'Cultivation revisited: Some genres have some effects on some viewers'. *Communication reports*. Vol. 13, (2), pp.99-114

Cops, D. and Pleysier, S. (2011) 'Doing gender' in fear of crime: The Impact of Gender Identity on Reported Levels of Fear of Crime in Adolescents and Young Adults'. *British Journal of Criminology*. Vol. 51, pp.58-74

CPS (2011) *Homicide: Murder and Manslaughter*. [Online] available at:http://www.cps.gov.uk/legal/h_to_k/homicide_murder_and_manslaughter/#a02 [Accessed 12th October 2011]

Davies, P. & Francis, P. (2011) Doing criminological research. IN: Davies, P., Francis, P. & Jupp, V. (eds). *Doing criminological research*. 2nd ed. London: Sage Publications Ltd.

Druckman, J.N. (2005). 'Media matter: how newspapers and television news cover campaigns and influence voters'. *Political Communication*, Vol. 22, pp. 463–481.

Duffy, B., Wake, R., Burrows, T and Bremner, P. (2008) 'Closing the gaps- crime and public perceptions'. *International Review of Law, Computers and Technology*. Vol. 22, (1), pp.17-44

Eschholz S, Chiricos T, Gertz M (2003). 'Television and Fear of Crime: Program types, audience traits, and the mediating effect of perceived neighborhood racial composition'. *Social Problems*. Vol. 50, (3), pp. 395–415.

Gelo, O., Braakmann, D. & Benetka, G. (2008) 'Quantitative and Qualitative Research: Beyond the Debate'. *Integrative Psychological and Behavioral Science*. Vol. 42, (3), pp. 266-290

Gerbner, G., & Gross, L. (1976). 'Living with television: The violence profile'. *Journal of Communication*, Vol. 26, pp. 173-199.

Gilchrist, E., Bannister, J., Ditton J. and Farrall, S. (1998) 'Women and the 'fear of crime' challenging the accepted Stereotype'. *British Journal of criminology*. Vol. 38, (2), pp. 283-298

Gillespie, M. & Mclaughlin, E. (2002) 'media and the shaping of publics attitudes', *criminal justice matters*, Vol. 49, pp. 8-9 and 23

Godsi, E. (1999) *Violence in society: the reality behind violent crime*. London: Constable and company Limited.

Grabe, M., & Drew, D. (2007). Crime cultivation: Comparisons across media genres and channels. *Journal of Broadcasting & Electronic Media*, Vol. 51, pp.147-171.

Hagan, F. E. (2005) *Essentials of research methods in criminal justice and criminology*. United States of America: Pearson Education, Inc.

Halliday, J. (2012) 'Almost 70% of British public distrust red-top tabloids'. *The Guardian*. [Online] available at: <http://www.guardian.co.uk/media/2012/jan/24/british-public-distrust-red-top-tabloids> [Accessed 26th January, 2012]

Hancock, L. (2006) 'Criminal justice, public opinion, fear and popular politics'. In: Muncies, J. & Wilson, D. (eds), *The Student handbook of criminal justice and criminology*. Oxon: Routledge- Cavendish.

Hawkins, R. P., & Pingree, S. (1981). 'Uniform messages and habitual viewing: Unnecessary assumptions in social reality effects'. *Human Communication Research*, Vol. 7, pp. 291-301.

Home office (2011) *Homicides, Firearm Offences and Intimate Violence 2009/10, Supplementary Volume 2 to Crime in England and Wales 2009/10*. London: Home office

Home office (2010) *Public perceptions of policing, engagement with the police and victimisation: Findings from the 2009/10 British Crime Survey: Supplementary Volume 1 to Crime in England and Wales 2009/10*. London: Home office.

Hough, M. and Mayhew, P. (1983) *The British Crime Survey: First Report*, Vol. 76. London: Her Majesty's Stationery Office.

House of commons (1999) *Homicide statistics*. [Online] available at:<http://www.parliament.uk/documents/commons/lib/research/rp99/rp99-056.pdf> [accessed 12th October 2011]

Hughes, J. A. & Sharrock, W. W. (2007) *Theory and methods in sociology: an introduction to sociological thinking and practice*. Hampshire: Palgrave Macmillian

Iyengar, S. (1991). *Is anyone responsible? How television frames political issues*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press

Jackson, M. (2006) 'Infanticide', *The Lancet*, Vol 367, Issue 9513, pp. 11-17

Karakus, O., McGarrell, E. F. & Basibuyuk, O. (2010) 'Fear of crime among citizens of Turkey'. *Journal of Criminal Justice*. Vol. 38, pp.174-184

Lakshman, M., Sinha, L., Biswas, M., Charles, M. and Arora, N. (2000) 'Quantitative Vs qualitative research methods'. *Indian Journal of Pediatrics*. Vol. 67, (5), pp. 369-377

Lett, M. D., DiPietro, A. L. & Johnson, D. I. (2004) 'Examining effects of the television news violence on college students through cultivation theory'. *Communication research reports*. Vol. 21, (1), pp. 39-46

Levi, M. & Maguire (2002) 'Violent crime'. In Maguire, M., Morgan, R. & Reiner, R. (Eds). *The oxford handbook of criminology*. 3rd ed. Oxford: Oxford university press

Maguire, M. (2002) 'Crime statistics: the data explosion and it's implications'. In Maguire, M., Morgan, R. & Reiner, R. (Eds). *The oxford handbook of criminology*. 3rd ed. Oxford: Oxford university press.

Marks, M. (2006) 'Infanticide', *Prenatal Psychiatry*. Vol 5, (1), pp 13-15

Mattinson, J. & Mirrlees-Black, C. (2000) *Attitudes to Crime and Criminal Justice: Findings from the 1998 British Crime Survey*, Home Office: London

McDonald, M. (1995) 'The Perception gap'. *Maclean's*. Vol. 108, (1), p. 28.

MacDonald, Z. (2002) 'Official crime statistics: their uses and interpretation'. *The Economic Journal*. Vol. 112, pp. 1-22

Mesch, G. S. (2010) 'Perceptions of risk, lifestyle activities, and fear of crime'. *Deviant Behaviour*. Vol. 21, (1), pp. 47-62

Mitchell, B. (1998) 'Public perceptions of homicide and criminal justice'. *British Journal of criminology*. Vol. 38, (3), pp 453- 472

Mitchell, B. and Mackay, R.D. (2011) 'Investigating Involuntary Manslaughter: An Empirical Study of 127 Cases', *Oxford Journal of Legal Studies*, Vol. 31, (1), pp. 165–191

Mitchell, B. and Roberts, J. V. (2012) 'Sentencing for murder: Exploring Public Knowledge and Public Opinion in England and Wales'. *British journal of criminology*. Vol. 52, pp. 141-158

Morgan, M & Shanahan, J. (2010) 'The state of cultivation'. *Journal of broadcasting & electronic media*, Vol. 54, (2), pp. 337- 355

Moser, C. A. & Kalton, G. (1972) *Survey methods in social investigation*. 2nd ed. London: Heinemann educational books limited.

Pain, R. (2001) 'Gender, Race, Age and Fear in the City'. *Urban Studies*, Vol. 38, (5–6), pp. 899–913

Peelo, M., Francis, B., Soothill, K., Pearson, J and Ackerley, E. (2004) 'Newspaper reporting and the public construction of homicide', *British Journal of criminology*. Vol 44. pp 256- 275

Pfeiffer, C., Windzio, M. & Kleimann, M. (2005) 'Media use and its impact on crime perception, sentencing attitudes and crime policy'. *European Journal of criminology*. Vol. 2, (3), pp. 259-285

Reidel, M. (2000) *Research Strategies for Secondary Data*. London: Sage.

Reiner, R. (2002) Media made criminality- The representation of crime in the mass media. In Maguire, M., Morgan, R. & Reiner, R. (Eds). *The oxford handbook of criminology*. 3rd ed. Oxford: Oxford university press

Roberts, J. V. & Stalans, L. J. (1997) *Public opinion, crime and criminal justice*. Oxford: Westview press.

Roshier, R. (1973). 'The Selection of Crime News by the Press'. In *The Manufacture of News*, ed by S. Cohen and J. Young. London: Constable. Pp. 28-39

Sarantakos, S. (1993) *Social Research*. Australia: Macmillan education Australia PTY Ltd.

- Schlesinger, P., Dobash, R., and Murdock, G. (1991), 'The Media Politics of Crime and Criminal Justice', *British Journal of Sociology*, Vol. 42. (3): pp. 397–420.
- Stellman, A. and Greene, J. (2005) *Applied Software Project Management*. O'Reilly media: Surrey.
- Signorielli, N. (1989). 'Television and conceptions about sex roles: Maintaining conventionality and the status quo'. *Sex Roles*, Vol. 21, pp. 341-360
- Sims, L. and Myhill, A. (2001). *Policing and the Public: Findings from the 2000 British Crime Survey*. Home Office Research Findings no. 136, London: Home Office.
- Skogan, W. G., & Maxfield, M. G. (1981). *Coping with crime: Individual and neighborhood reactions*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- Smith, S. J. (1984) 'Crime in the News'. *British journal of criminology*. Vol. 24, (3), pp. 289-295.
- Soothill, K., Peelo, M., Francis, B., Pearson, J. & Ackerley, E. (2002) 'Homicide and the media: identifying the top cases in the times'. *The Howard journal*. Vol. 41, (5), pp. 401-421
- Sorenson, S. B., Peterson, J. G. and Berk, R. A. (1998) 'News media coverage and the epidemiology of homicide'. *The American Journal of Public Health*. Vol. 88, (10), pp. 1510-1514.
- Sparks, R., Genn, H. and Dodd, D. (1977) *Surveying victims: a study of the measurement of criminal victimisation, perceptions of crime, and attitudes to criminal justice*. New York: Wiley.
- Spinelli, M. G. (2005) 'Infanticide: contrasting views', *Women's Mental Health*. 8: 15–24
- Stanko, E. (1990) *Everyday Violence: Women's and Men's Experience of Personal Danger*. London: Pandora
- Summers, C. (2008) 'Is knife crime as common as we think?'. *BBC News*. [Online] available at: <http://news.bbc.co.uk/1/hi/uk/7421534.stm> [Accessed 16th March 2012]
- Taylor, C. A. & Sorenson, S. B. (2002) 'The nature of newspaper coverage of homicide'. *Injury prevention*. Vol. 8, pp. 121-127
- Taylor, R. B., & Hale, M. (1986). 'Testing alternative models of fear of crime'. *Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology*. Vol. 77, pp.151–189.
- The Observer (2003) '*The Undercover poll*'. [Online] Available at: <http://www.guardian.co.uk/uk/2003/apr/27/ukcrime13> [Accessed 2nd November 2011]
- Tyler, T., & Cook, F. (1984). 'The mass media and judgments of risk: Distinguishing impact on personal and societal level judgments'. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, Vol. 47, pp. 693-708

Walker, M. A. (1994) Measuring concern about crime: some inter-racial comparisons, *British Journal of Criminology*, Vol. 34, pp. 366–378.

Warr, M. (1983) 'Fear of Victimization: A Look at the Proximate Causes'. *Social Forces*, Vol.62, (4), pp. 1033-1043

Weatherburn, D. and Indermaur, D. (2004), 'Public Perceptions of Crime Trends in New South Wales and Western Australia', *Crime and Justice Bulletin*, Number 80. NSW Bureau of Crime Statistics: Sydney

Weatherburn, D., Matka E. and Lind, B. (1996) 'Crime Perception and Reality: Public Perceptions of the Risk of Criminal Victimization in Australia'. *Crime and justice bulletin*, Number 28, NSW Bureau of Crime Statistics: Sydney

Williams, K. (2008) *Criminology*. 6th ed. Oxford: Oxford university press.

Winkle, F. W., and Vrij, A. (1990), 'Fear of crime and media crime reports: testing similarity Hypotheses', *International Review of Victimology*, Vol. 1, pp. 251-66

Appendix 1

My Name is Sally Freeman and I am a third year criminology student at the University of Huddersfield. This project is being supervised by Dr. Carla Reeves and will be examining perceptions of homicide in England and Wales.

Thank you for considering being part of my study. Please could you answer the following questions to show that you are clear on the purpose of the study and that you are willing to take part. (Please circle answer accordingly)

1. Are you clear on the purpose of the study? YES/NO
2. Do you understand that you can withdraw from the study at any stage?
YES/NO
3. Do you understand that you are free to choose not to answer a question without giving a reason why? YES/NO
4. Do you understand that by completing the study you are giving your consent to be part of this study? YES/NO

The information, which I receive from this survey, shall be anonymous and solely used for research purposes. As a participant you have the right to withdraw your data during any stage of the research, if you are no longer happy with your information being used. In order to do this please make note of your survey number and email that number to me if you no longer want to continue.

Thank you for your time.

Sally Freeman
U0756817@hud.ac.uk

Dr. Carla Reeves- Supervisor
c.l.reeves@hud.ac.uk

Appendix 2

Please answer the questions by placing a tick in the appropriate box:

Your details

Age _____

Sex: Male

Female

Information on crime

1. What is your main source of information on crime?

(Please only select one)

Television news or documentaries

Television dramas including soaps

Films

Newspapers (please state most frequently read) _____

Family/friends

Police

Personal experience

Other (Please state) _____

Perceptions of Homicide

2. On Average, how many homicides do you think occur in England and Wales per year? (Homicide refers to murder, manslaughter and infanticide which is the killing of a child under 1 year by the biological mother).

3. Of these homicides, what proportion do you estimate were murder, manslaughter and infanticide? (please answer in percent)

Murder _____%

Manslaughter _____%

Infanticide _____%

4. Over the last 10 years do you think the number of homicides have:

Increased

- Decreased
- Stayed the same

**5. Where do you think the majority of homicides occur?
(Please select only one)**

- In the street
- In a house
- In an alley
- Outside a pub/club
- In an open area
- Other (please state) _____

**6. What do you think the circumstances of most homicides are?
(please select only one)**

- Quarrel, revenge attack or loss of temper
- Result of theft or gain
- Irrational act
- Result of arson
- Other circumstance

Perspectives of homicide victims

7. Which sex do you think is most likely to be the victim of homicide? (please select one)

- Male
- Female

8. Which ethnicity do you think victims of homicide are most likely to be? (please select one)

- White
- Black

- Asian
- Chinese
- Other

9. What do you think the most common relationship is between the victim and perpetrator of homicide? (please select one)

- Stranger
- Partner or ex-partner
- Other family member
- Other known person

10. What age do you think that someone is most likely to be a victim of homicide? (please select one)

- Under 1 year
- 1- 4 years
- 5 – 10 years
- 11 –15 years
- 16 – 20 years
- 21 – 29 years
- 30 – 49 years
- 50 – 69 years
- 70 years or over

Perceptions of homicide perpetrators

11. Who do you think is most likely to be the perpetrator of homicide? (please select one)

- Male
- Female

**12. Which ethnicity do you think perpetrators of homicide are most likely to be?
(please select one)**

- White
- Black
- Asian
- Chinese
- Other

13. What age do you think the average homicide perpetrator is? (please select one)

- 5 – 10 years
- 11 –15 years
- 16 – 20 years
- 21 – 29 years
- 30 – 49 years
- 50 – 69 years
- 70 years or over

Thank you for taking part in my study. You may take this sheet as reference.

Please make a note of your study number located in the top right hand corner on the page, in case you would like to withdraw from the study at any point.

Below are some mine and my supervisors contact details if you require any further information. There are also contact details for helplines in case you have been adversely affected by anything in this study.

Sally Freeman
U0756817@hud.ac.uk

Dr. Carla Reeves

c.l.reeves@hud.ac.uk

Helplines

University welfare support services

Room CSB/4

Telephone: 01484 472675

Samaritans

Telephone: 08457 90 90 90

Email: jo@samaritans.org

Appendix 3

age of the participant

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	18	12	11.8	12.0	12.0
	19	22	21.6	22.0	34.0
	20	11	10.8	11.0	45.0
	21	13	12.7	13.0	58.0
	22	1	1.0	1.0	59.0
	23	3	2.9	3.0	62.0
	24	2	2.0	2.0	64.0
	26	6	5.9	6.0	70.0
	27	1	1.0	1.0	71.0
	29	3	2.9	3.0	74.0
	30	3	2.9	3.0	77.0
	32	1	1.0	1.0	78.0
	33	2	2.0	2.0	80.0
	34	3	2.9	3.0	83.0
	35	2	2.0	2.0	85.0
	36	1	1.0	1.0	86.0
	37	2	2.0	2.0	88.0
	38	2	2.0	2.0	90.0
	39	1	1.0	1.0	91.0
	40	1	1.0	1.0	92.0
	41	2	2.0	2.0	94.0
	42	3	2.9	3.0	97.0
	44	1	1.0	1.0	98.0
	47	1	1.0	1.0	99.0
	48	1	1.0	1.0	100.0
	Total	100	98.0	100.0	
Missing	999	2	2.0		
Total		102	100.0		

sex of participant

		Frequenc y	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	male	26	25.5	25.7	25.7
	female	75	73.5	74.3	100.0
	Total	101	99.0	100.0	
Missing	99	1	1.0		
Total		102	100.0		

main source of information on crime

		Frequenc y	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	news or documentaries	68	66.7	69.4	69.4
	drama	3	2.9	3.1	72.4
	newspapers	21	20.6	21.4	93.9
	police	1	1.0	1.0	94.9
	personal experience	3	2.9	3.1	98.0
	other	2	2.0	2.0	100.0
	Total	98	96.1	100.0	
Missing	99	4	3.9		
Total		102	100.0		

newspaper read most often

		Frequenc y	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	broadsheet	7	6.9	38.9	38.9
	tabloid	11	10.8	61.1	100.0
	Total	18	17.6	100.0	
Missing	99	84	82.4		
Total		102	100.0		

number of homicides per year

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid				
5	1	1.0	1.0	1.0
35	2	2.0	2.0	3.0
50	1	1.0	1.0	4.0
60	1	1.0	1.0	5.1
70	1	1.0	1.0	6.1
100	10	9.8	10.1	16.2
105	1	1.0	1.0	17.2
120	1	1.0	1.0	18.2
150	2	2.0	2.0	20.2
200	4	3.9	4.0	24.2
250	2	2.0	2.0	26.3
300	2	2.0	2.0	28.3
350	4	3.9	4.0	32.3
400	4	3.9	4.0	36.4
450	1	1.0	1.0	37.4
500	4	3.9	4.0	41.4
600	1	1.0	1.0	42.4
620	1	1.0	1.0	43.4
649	1	1.0	1.0	44.4
650	3	2.9	3.0	47.5
675	2	2.0	2.0	49.5
700	2	2.0	2.0	51.5
800	2	2.0	2.0	53.5
876	1	1.0	1.0	54.5
950	1	1.0	1.0	55.6
1000	14	13.7	14.1	69.7
1500	2	2.0	2.0	71.7
2000	4	3.9	4.0	75.8
2500	2	2.0	2.0	77.8
3000	3	2.9	3.0	80.8
4000	1	1.0	1.0	81.8
5000	3	2.9	3.0	84.8
6000	1	1.0	1.0	85.9
8000	1	1.0	1.0	86.9
8762	1	1.0	1.0	87.9
9000	1	1.0	1.0	88.9
10000	2	2.0	2.0	90.9
15000	1	1.0	1.0	91.9
20000	1	1.0	1.0	92.9
25000	1	1.0	1.0	93.9
40000	1	1.0	1.0	94.9
75000	1	1.0	1.0	96.0
100000	1	1.0	1.0	97.0
500000	1	1.0	1.0	98.0
600000	1	1.0	1.0	99.0
830000	1	1.0	1.0	100.0
Total	99	97.1	100.0	
Missing	0	2.9		
Total	102	100.0		

proportion of infanticides

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	6	5.9	5.9	5.9
	2	2	2.0	2.0	7.9
	5	12	11.8	11.9	19.8
	7	1	1.0	1.0	20.8
	8	1	1.0	1.0	21.8
	9	2	2.0	2.0	23.8
	10	42	41.2	41.6	65.3
	15	1	1.0	1.0	66.3
	20	15	14.7	14.9	81.2
	25	3	2.9	3.0	84.2
	28	1	1.0	1.0	85.1
	30	7	6.9	6.9	92.1
	33	1	1.0	1.0	93.1
	35	1	1.0	1.0	94.1
	40	4	3.9	4.0	98.0
	45	1	1.0	1.0	99.0
50	1	1.0	1.0	100.0	
Total		101	99.0	100.0	
Missing	0	1	1.0		
Total		102	100.0		

proportion of murders

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	10	3	2.9	3.0	3.0
	11	1	1.0	1.0	4.0
	12	2	2.0	2.0	5.9
	15	1	1.0	1.0	6.9
	18	1	1.0	1.0	7.9
	20	7	6.9	6.9	14.9
	22	1	1.0	1.0	15.8
	25	6	5.9	5.9	21.8
	29	1	1.0	1.0	22.8
	30	37	36.3	36.6	59.4
	33	1	1.0	1.0	60.4
	35	4	3.9	4.0	64.4
	38	1	1.0	1.0	65.3
	40	13	12.7	12.9	78.2
	42	1	1.0	1.0	79.2
	43	1	1.0	1.0	80.2
	45	2	2.0	2.0	82.2
	50	8	7.8	7.9	90.1
	54	1	1.0	1.0	91.1
	59	1	1.0	1.0	92.1
	60	5	4.9	5.0	97.0
	75	1	1.0	1.0	98.0
	80	2	2.0	2.0	100.0
Total		101	99.0	100.0	
Missing	0	1	1.0		
Total		102	100.0		

proportion of manslaughter

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	15	2	2.0	2.0	2.0
	20	3	2.9	3.0	5.0
	25	2	2.0	2.0	6.9
	30	9	8.8	8.9	15.8
	33	1	1.0	1.0	16.8
	35	2	2.0	2.0	18.8
	38	1	1.0	1.0	19.8
	39	1	1.0	1.0	20.8
	40	11	10.8	10.9	31.7
	42	1	1.0	1.0	32.7
	45	5	4.9	5.0	37.6
	50	16	15.7	15.8	53.5
	55	2	2.0	2.0	55.4
	60	27	26.5	26.7	82.2
	65	2	2.0	2.0	84.2
	68	1	1.0	1.0	85.1
	69	1	1.0	1.0	86.1
	70	6	5.9	5.9	92.1
	75	1	1.0	1.0	93.1
	79	3	2.9	3.0	96.0
	80	3	2.9	3.0	99.0
	87	1	1.0	1.0	100.0
	Total	101	99.0	100.0	
Missing	0	1	1.0		
Total		102	100.0		

last ten years number of homicides

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	increased	51	50.0	50.0	50.0
	decreased	13	12.7	12.7	62.7
	stayed the same	38	37.3	37.3	100.0
	Total	102	100.0	100.0	

circumstance of homicide

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid quarrell, revenge, loss of temper	85	83.3	83.3	83.3
theft/gain	2	2.0	2.0	85.3
irrational act	10	9.8	9.8	95.1
arson	1	1.0	1.0	96.1
other	4	3.9	3.9	100.0
Total	102	100.0	100.0	

where homicides occur

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid street	13	12.7	12.7	12.7
house	79	77.5	77.5	90.2
alley	2	2.0	2.0	92.2
outside	3	2.9	2.9	95.1
pub/club				
open area	4	3.9	3.9	99.0
other	1	1.0	1.0	100.0
Total	102	100.0	100.0	

age of perpetrator

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 11-15	1	1.0	1.0	1.0
16-20	2	2.0	2.0	3.0
21-29	54	52.9	53.5	56.4
30-49	44	43.1	43.6	100.0
Total	101	99.0	100.0	
Missing 99	1	1.0		
Total	102	100.0		

ethnicity of perpetrator

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	white	77	75.5	78.6	78.6
	black	10	9.8	10.2	88.8
	asian	7	6.9	7.1	95.9
	other	4	3.9	4.1	100.0
	Total	98	96.1	100.0	
Missing	99	3	2.9		
	System	1	1.0		
	Total	4	3.9		
Total		102	100.0		

sex of perpetrator

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	male	101	99.0	99.0	99.0
	female	1	1.0	1.0	100.0
	Total	102	100.0	100.0	

victim/offender relationship

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	stranger	8	7.8	7.9	7.9
	partner/ex	59	57.8	58.4	66.3
	other family	7	6.9	6.9	73.3
	other known	27	26.5	26.7	100.0
	Total	101	99.0	100.0	
	Missing	99	1	1.0	
Total		102	100.0		

sex of victim

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	male	37	36.3	36.3	36.3
	female	65	63.7	63.7	100.0
	Total	102	100.0	100.0	

age of victim

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid under 1	1	1.0	1.0	1.0
5-10	1	1.0	1.0	2.0
16-20	13	12.7	12.7	14.7
21-29	73	71.6	71.6	86.3
30-49	14	13.7	13.7	100.0
Total	102	100.0	100.0	

ethnicity of victim

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid white	70	68.6	70.7	70.7
black	20	19.6	20.2	90.9
asian	8	7.8	8.1	99.0
other	1	1.0	1.0	100.0
Total	99	97.1	100.0	
Missing 99	2	2.0		
System	1	1.0		
Total	3	2.9		
Total	102	100.0		

source of info on crime

sex of participant	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
male Valid TV news/documentaries	15	57.7	57.7	57.7
other source	11	42.3	42.3	100.0
Total	26	100.0	100.0	
female Valid TV news/documentaries	52	69.3	69.3	69.3
other source	23	30.7	30.7	100.0
Total	75	100.0	100.0	
99 Valid TV news/documentaries	1	100.0	100.0	100.0

homicide categories

sex of participant			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
male	Valid	under 600	13	50.0	50.0	50.0
		601 to 1000	10	38.5	38.5	88.5
		1001 plus	3	11.5	11.5	100.0
		Total	26	100.0	100.0	
female	Valid	under 600	32	42.7	42.7	42.7
		601 to 1000	17	22.7	22.7	65.3
		1001 plus	26	34.7	34.7	100.0
		Total	75	100.0	100.0	
99	Valid	1001 plus	1	100.0	100.0	100.0

murder proportion categories

sex of participant			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
male	Valid	1-32%	16	61.5	61.5	61.5
		33-36%	2	7.7	7.7	69.2
		37-100%	8	30.8	30.8	100.0
		Total	26	100.0	100.0	
female	Valid	1-32%	43	57.3	58.1	58.1
		33-36%	3	4.0	4.1	62.2
		37-100%	28	37.3	37.8	100.0
		Total	74	98.7	100.0	
	Missing	System	1	1.3		
Total		75	100.0			
99	Valid	1-32%	1	100.0	100.0	100.0

manslaughter proportion categories

sex of participant			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
male	Valid	1-20%	1	3.8	3.8	3.8
		21-25%	1	3.8	3.8	7.7
		26-100%	24	92.3	92.3	100.0
		Total	26	100.0	100.0	
female	Valid	1-20%	4	5.3	5.4	5.4
		21-25%	1	1.3	1.4	6.8
		26-100%	69	92.0	93.2	100.0
		Total	74	98.7	100.0	

	Missing System		1	1.3		
	Total		75	100.0		
99	Valid	26-100%	1	100.0	100.0	100.0

infanticide proportion categories

sex of participant			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
male	Valid	0-1%	2	7.7	7.7	7.7
		higher than 1%	24	92.3	92.3	100.0
		Total	26	100.0	100.0	
female	Valid	0-1%	5	6.7	6.7	6.7
		higher than 1%	70	93.3	93.3	100.0
		Total	75	100.0	100.0	
99	Valid	higher than 1%	1	100.0	100.0	100.0

rates over past ten years

sex of participant			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
male	Valid	decreased	7	26.9	26.9	26.9
		increased/stayed same	19	73.1	73.1	100.0
		Total	26	100.0	100.0	
female	Valid	decreased	6	8.0	8.0	8.0
		increased/stayed same	69	92.0	92.0	100.0
		Total	75	100.0	100.0	
99	Valid	increased/stayed same	1	100.0	100.0	100.0

location categories

sex of participant			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
male	Valid	house	21	80.8	80.8	80.8
		other location	5	19.2	19.2	100.0
		Total	26	100.0	100.0	
female	Valid	house	57	76.0	76.0	76.0
		other location	18	24.0	24.0	100.0
		Total	75	100.0	100.0	
99	Valid	house	1	100.0	100.0	100.0

circumstances categories

sex of participant			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
male	Valid	quarrel, revenge or loss of temper	20	76.9	76.9	76.9
		other	6	23.1	23.1	100.0
		Total	26	100.0	100.0	
female	Valid	quarrel, revenge or loss of temper	64	85.3	85.3	85.3
		other	11	14.7	14.7	100.0
		Total	75	100.0	100.0	
99	Valid	quarrel, revenge or loss of temper	1	100.0	100.0	100.0

sex of victim

sex of participant			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
male	Valid	male	14	53.8	53.8	53.8
		female	12	46.2	46.2	100.0
		Total	26	100.0	100.0	
female	Valid	male	23	30.7	30.7	30.7
		female	52	69.3	69.3	100.0
		Total	75	100.0	100.0	
99	Valid	female	1	100.0	100.0	100.0

victim ethnicity categories

sex of participant			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
male	Valid	white	19	73.1	73.1	73.1
		other	7	26.9	26.9	100.0
		Total	26	100.0	100.0	
female	Valid	white	50	66.7	66.7	66.7
		other	25	33.3	33.3	100.0
		Total	75	100.0	100.0	
99	Valid	white	1	100.0	100.0	100.0

victim/offender relationship categories

sex of participant			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
male	Valid	partner/ex-partner	14	53.8	53.8	53.8
		other	12	46.2	46.2	100.0
		Total	26	100.0	100.0	
female	Valid	partner/ex-partner	45	60.0	60.0	60.0
		other	30	40.0	40.0	100.0
		Total	75	100.0	100.0	
99	Valid	other	1	100.0	100.0	100.0

victim age categories

sex of participant			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
male	Valid	16-29	22	84.6	84.6	84.6
		other	4	15.4	15.4	100.0
		Total	26	100.0	100.0	
female	Valid	16-29	63	84.0	84.0	84.0
		other	12	16.0	16.0	100.0
		Total	75	100.0	100.0	
99	Valid	16-29	1	100.0	100.0	100.0

sex of perpetrator

sex of participant			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
male	Valid	male	25	96.2	96.2	96.2
		female	1	3.8	3.8	100.0

	Total	26	100.0	100.0	
female	Valid male	75	100.0	100.0	100.0
99	Valid male	1	100.0	100.0	100.0

ethnicity of perpetrator categories

sex of participant			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
male	Valid	white	21	80.8	80.8	80.8
		other	5	19.2	19.2	100.0
		Total	26	100.0	100.0	
female	Valid	white	55	73.3	73.3	73.3
		other	20	26.7	26.7	100.0
		Total	75	100.0	100.0	
99	Valid	white	1	100.0	100.0	100.0

perpetrator age category

sex of participant			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
male	Valid	30-49	8	30.8	30.8	30.8
		other	18	69.2	69.2	100.0
		Total	26	100.0	100.0	
female	Valid	30-49	35	46.7	46.7	46.7
		other	40	53.3	53.3	100.0
		Total	75	100.0	100.0	
99	Valid	30-49	1	100.0	100.0	100.0

homicide categories

source of info on crime			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
TV news/documentaries	Valid	under 600	28	41.2	41.2	41.2
		601 to 1000	16	23.5	23.5	64.7
		1001 plus	24	35.3	35.3	100.0
		Total	68	100.0	100.0	
other source	Valid	under 600	17	50.0	50.0	50.0
		601 to 1000	11	32.4	32.4	82.4
		1001 plus	6	17.6	17.6	100.0
		Total	34	100.0	100.0	

murder proportion categories

source of info on crime			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
TV news/documentaries	Valid	1-32%	41	60.3	61.2	61.2
		33-36%	2	2.9	3.0	64.2
		37-100%	24	35.3	35.8	100.0
		Total	67	98.5	100.0	
	Missing System	1	1.5			
Total			68	100.0		
other source	Valid	1-32%	19	55.9	55.9	55.9
		33-36%	3	8.8	8.8	64.7
		37-100%	12	35.3	35.3	100.0
		Total	34	100.0	100.0	

manslaughter proportion categories

source of info on crime			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
TV news/documentaries	Valid	1-20%	3	4.4	4.5	4.5
		21-25%	1	1.5	1.5	6.0
		26-100%	63	92.6	94.0	100.0
		Total	67	98.5	100.0	
	Missing System	1	1.5			
Total			68	100.0		
other source	Valid	1-20%	2	5.9	5.9	5.9
		21-25%	1	2.9	2.9	8.8
		26-100%	31	91.2	91.2	100.0
		Total	34	100.0	100.0	

infanticide proportion categories

source of info on crime			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
TV news/documentaries	Valid	0-1%	5	7.4	7.4	7.4
		higher than 1%	63	92.6	92.6	100.0
		Total	68	100.0	100.0	
other source	Valid	0-1%	2	5.9	5.9	5.9
		higher than 1%	32	94.1	94.1	100.0
		Total	34	100.0	100.0	

rates over past ten years

source of info on crime	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
-------------------------	-----------	---------	---------------	--------------------

TV news/documentaries	Valid	decreased	9	13.2	13.2	13.2
		increased/stayed same	59	86.8	86.8	100.0
		Total	68	100.0	100.0	
other source	Valid	decreased	4	11.8	11.8	11.8
		increased/stayed same	30	88.2	88.2	100.0
		Total	34	100.0	100.0	

location categories

source of info on crime			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
TV news/documentaries	Valid	house	54	79.4	79.4	79.4
		other location	14	20.6	20.6	100.0
		Total	68	100.0	100.0	
other source	Valid	house	25	73.5	73.5	73.5
		other location	9	26.5	26.5	100.0
		Total	34	100.0	100.0	

circumstances categories

source of info on crime			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
TV news/documentaries	Valid	quarrel, revenge or loss of temper	55	80.9	80.9	80.9
		other	13	19.1	19.1	100.0
		Total	68	100.0	100.0	
other source	Valid	quarrel, revenge or loss of temper	30	88.2	88.2	88.2
		other	4	11.8	11.8	100.0
		Total	34	100.0	100.0	

sex of victim

source of info on crime			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
TV news/documentaries	Valid	male	19	27.9	27.9	27.9
		female	49	72.1	72.1	100.0
		Total	68	100.0	100.0	
other source	Valid	male	18	52.9	52.9	52.9
		female	16	47.1	47.1	100.0
		Total	34	100.0	100.0	

victim ethnicity categories

source of info on crime			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
TV news/documentaries	Valid	white	45	66.2	66.2	66.2
		other	23	33.8	33.8	100.0
		Total	68	100.0	100.0	
other source	Valid	white	25	73.5	73.5	73.5
		other	9	26.5	26.5	100.0
		Total	34	100.0	100.0	

victim age categories

source of info on crime			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
TV news/documentaries	Valid	16-29	58	85.3	85.3	85.3
		other	10	14.7	14.7	100.0
		Total	68	100.0	100.0	
other source	Valid	16-29	28	82.4	82.4	82.4
		other	6	17.6	17.6	100.0

victim age categories

source of info on crime			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
TV news/documentaries	Valid	16-29	58	85.3	85.3	85.3
		other	10	14.7	14.7	100.0
		Total	68	100.0	100.0	
other source	Valid	16-29	28	82.4	82.4	82.4
		other	6	17.6	17.6	100.0
		Total	34	100.0	100.0	

victim/offender relationship categories

source of info on crime			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
TV news/documentaries	Valid	partner/ex-partner	38	55.9	55.9	55.9
		other	30	44.1	44.1	100.0
		Total	68	100.0	100.0	
other source	Valid	partner/ex-partner	21	61.8	61.8	61.8
		other	13	38.2	38.2	100.0
		Total	34	100.0	100.0	

sex of perpetrator

source of info on crime			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
TV news/documentaries	Valid	male	67	98.5	98.5	98.5
		female	1	1.5	1.5	100.0
		Total	68	100.0	100.0	
other source	Valid	male	34	100.0	100.0	100.0

ethnicity of perpetrator categories

source of info on crime			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
TV news/documentaries	Valid	white	51	75.0	75.0	75.0
		other	17	25.0	25.0	100.0
		Total	68	100.0	100.0	
other source	Valid	white	26	76.5	76.5	76.5
		other	8	23.5	23.5	100.0
		Total	34	100.0	100.0	

perpetrator age category

source of info on crime			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
TV news/documentaries	Valid	30-49	28	41.2	41.2	41.2
		other	40	58.8	58.8	100.0
		Total	68	100.0	100.0	
other source	Valid	30-49	16	47.1	47.1	47.1
		other	18	52.9	52.9	100.0
		Total	34	100.0	100.0	

Source of information and circumstance- Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.882 ^a	1	.348		
Continuity Correction ^b	.432	1	.511		
Likelihood Ratio	.926	1	.336		
Fisher's Exact Test				.411	.260
Linear-by-Linear Association	.874	1	.350		
N of Valid Cases	102				

- a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 5.67.
b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

Source of information and perpetrator ethnicity- Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.026 ^a	1	.871		
Continuity Correction ^b	.000	1	1.000		
Likelihood Ratio	.027	1	.870		
Fisher's Exact Test				1.000	.538
Linear-by-Linear Association	.026	1	.871		
N of Valid Cases	102				

- a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 8.33.
b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

Source of media and homicide Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	19.071 ^a	10	.039
Likelihood Ratio	21.685	10	.017
Linear-by-Linear Association	3.528	1	.060
N of Valid Cases	98		

- a. 12 cells (66.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .27.

Source of information and infanticide- Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.077 ^a	1	.782	1.000	.571
Continuity Correction ^b	.000	1	1.000		
Likelihood Ratio	.079	1	.779		
Fisher's Exact Test					
Linear-by-Linear Association	.076	1	.783		
N of Valid Cases	102				

a. 2 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.33.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

Source of information and manslaughter- Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.349 ^a	2	.840
Likelihood Ratio	.333	2	.847
Linear-by-Linear Association	.199	1	.656
N of Valid Cases	101		

a. 4 cells (66.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .67.

Source of information and murder- Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.662 ^a	2	.436
Likelihood Ratio	1.554	2	.460
Linear-by-Linear Association	.057	1	.811
N of Valid Cases	101		

a. 2 cells (33.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.68.

Source of media and perpetrator age- Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.320 ^a	1	.572		
Continuity Correction ^b	.125	1	.724		
Likelihood Ratio	.319	1	.572		
Fisher's Exact Test				.672	.361
Linear-by-Linear Association	.317	1	.574		
N of Valid Cases	102				

- a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 14.67.
b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

Source of information and sex of victim- Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	6.128 ^a	1	.013		
Continuity Correction ^b	5.095	1	.024		
Likelihood Ratio	6.034	1	.014		
Fisher's Exact Test				.017	.012
Linear-by-Linear Association	6.068	1	.014		
N of Valid Cases	102				

- a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 12.33.
b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

Source of information and ten year rate- Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.044 ^a	1	.834		
Continuity Correction ^b	.000	1	1.000		
Likelihood Ratio	.045	1	.833		
Fisher's Exact Test				1.000	.552
Linear-by-Linear Association	.044	1	.835		
N of Valid Cases	102				

- a. 1 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 4.33.
b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

Source of information and victim age- Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.148 ^a	1	.700		
Continuity Correction ^b	.009	1	.923		
Likelihood Ratio	.146	1	.702		
Fisher's Exact Test				.775	.453
Linear-by-Linear Association	.147	1	.702		
N of Valid Cases	102				

- a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 5.33.
b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

Source of information and victim ethnicity- Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.569 ^a	1	.451		
Continuity Correction ^b	.279	1	.597		
Likelihood Ratio	.579	1	.447		
Fisher's Exact Test				.504	.301
Linear-by-Linear Association	.564	1	.453		
N of Valid Cases	102				

- a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 10.67.
b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

Male and female- perpetrator ethnicity- Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.573 ^a	1	.449		
Continuity Correction ^b	.243	1	.622		
Likelihood Ratio	.595	1	.440		
Fisher's Exact Test				.600	.317
Linear-by-Linear Association	.567	1	.451		
N of Valid Cases	101				

- a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 6.44.
b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

Male and female- victim ethnicity- Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.367 ^a	1	.545	.630	.364
Continuity Correction ^b	.130	1	.718		
Likelihood Ratio	.374	1	.541		
Fisher's Exact Test					
Linear-by-Linear Association	.363	1	.547		
N of Valid Cases	101				

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 8.24.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

Male female- homicide- Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	5.632 ^a	2	.060
Likelihood Ratio	6.222	2	.045
Linear-by-Linear Association	2.507	1	.113
N of Valid Cases	101		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 6.95.

Male female- infanticide- Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.031 ^a	1	.859	1.000	.580
Continuity Correction ^b	.000	1	1.000		
Likelihood Ratio	.031	1	.861		
Fisher's Exact Test					
Linear-by-Linear Association	.031	1	.860		
N of Valid Cases	101				

a. 1 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.80.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

Male female- manslaughter- Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.694 ^a	2	.707
Likelihood Ratio	.625	2	.732
Linear-by-Linear Association	.004	1	.952
N of Valid Cases	100		

a. 4 cells (66.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .52.

Male female- murder- Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.815 ^a	2	.665
Likelihood Ratio	.779	2	.677
Linear-by-Linear Association	.234	1	.629
N of Valid Cases	100		

a. 2 cells (33.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.30.

Male female- perpetrator age- Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.996 ^a	1	.158		
Continuity Correction ^b	1.399	1	.237		
Likelihood Ratio	2.045	1	.153		
Fisher's Exact Test				.176	.118
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.976	1	.160		
N of Valid Cases	101				

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 11.07.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

Male female- sex of victim- Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	4.469 ^a	1	.035		
Continuity Correction ^b	3.526	1	.060		
Likelihood Ratio	4.359	1	.037		
Fisher's Exact Test				.057	.031
Linear-by-Linear Association	4.424	1	.035		
N of Valid Cases	101				

- a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 9.52.
b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

Male female- ten year rate- Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	6.165 ^a	1	.013		
Continuity Correction ^b	4.593	1	.032		
Likelihood Ratio	5.449	1	.020		
Fisher's Exact Test				.036	.020
Linear-by-Linear Association	6.104	1	.013		
N of Valid Cases	101				

- a. 1 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3.35.
b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

Male female- victim age- Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.005 ^a	1	.941		
Continuity Correction ^b	.000	1	1.000		
Likelihood Ratio	.006	1	.941		
Fisher's Exact Test				1.000	.606
Linear-by-Linear Association	.005	1	.941		
N of Valid Cases	101				

- a. 1 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 4.12.
b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

**Sex of participant and source of media- Chi-Square
Tests**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	11.328 ^a	5	.045
Likelihood Ratio	12.008	5	.035
Linear-by-Linear Association	5.441	1	.020
N of Valid Cases	97		

a. 8 cells (66.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .27.